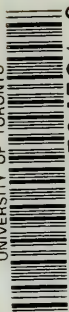
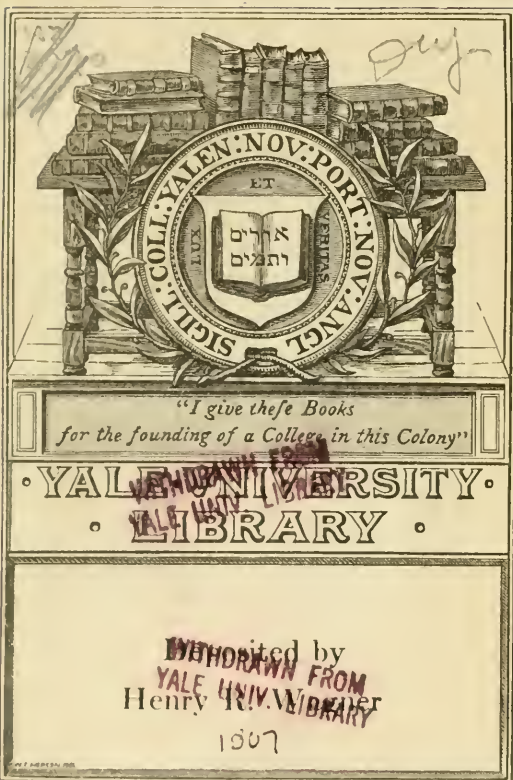


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TO
THE RIGHT HONOURABLE THE LORDS OF THE COMMITTEE
OF THE
MOST HONOURABLE PRIVY COUNCIL,
APPOINTED FOR
THE CONSIDERATION OF ALL MATTERS
RELATING TO
TRADE AND FOREIGN PLANTATIONS.

My Lords,

I have the honour to solicit your Lordship's acceptance of a Work, which has, for its object, an increase of the wealth and prosperity of this country.

The means I have pointed out, for the attainment of these ends, are such as require all of them protection, some of them encouragement, and fostering attention and care. It is for these reasons that I have

taken the liberty of dedicating my labours to your Lordships. The world will admit, at least, the propriety of the Dedication.

I shall be highly gratified, if the Work now submitted to the consideration of your Lordships, shall be found, in any degree, conducive to the general Interests of the British Empire.

I have the honour to be,

My Lords,

Your Lordships

Most obedient,

And very humble servant,

J. JEPSON ODDY.

London, 1st August, 1805.

EUROPEAN COMMERCE,

SHEWING NEW AND SECURE CHANNELS OF TRADE WITH THE

CONTINENT OF EUROPE :

DETAILING THE

PRODUCE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE,

OF

RUSSIA, PRUSSIA, SWEDEN, DENMARK,
AND GERMANY ;

AS WELL AS THE TRADE OF THE

RIVERS ELBE, WESER, AND EMS ;

WITH A GENERAL VIEW OF THE

Trade, Navigation, Produce, and Manufactures, of the
UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN & IRELAND.

BY J. JEPSON ODDY,

MEMBER OF THE RUSSIAN AND TURKEY OR LEVANT COMPANIES.

IN TWO VOLUMES.

VOL. I.

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PREFACE.

THE uncommon circumstances of the present times, when commerce is forced from its usual channels, may sufficiently apologize for my offering some information relative to those new and circuitous routes of carrying on business with the continent of Europe, which it is become necessary to adopt.

The commerce of Britain must either decline, or new channels and modes of carrying it on be sought after, encouraged, and adopted: for, where shall we find a sufficient market for our East and West India produce and our home manufactures, when shut out from the continent of Europe?

Every material circumstance here developed would certainly be known, in process of time: but men engaged in commerce have no time to lose. I therefore hope, that what I now offer will be found useful. I shall preface the subject with a few general remarks.

There is no information yet published, relative to our commercial intercourse with the continent, through

the medium of the northern channels, sufficiently detailed and comprehensive, for the use of the British merchant: and, as accuracy of detail may be claimed, without apprehending an imputation of vanity, I hope I may be permitted to say, that I have had, and cultivated opportunities of becoming, in some measure, qualified for the task I have undertaken. Personal observations, with experience, both at home and abroad, in a life of active occupation, having given me peculiar advantages, I have been enabled to point out many things hitherto little known; and which will be highly useful to the landed proprietors, merchants, manufacturers, ship owners, and under-writers of Great Britain.

While Great Britain is engaged in a contest with an implacable foe, who aims at the annihilation of her political existence, by the ruin of her commerce, it must afford the highest satisfaction to every friend to his country to know, that, even if the continent remain in its present situation, there are new, wide, and secure channels, by which her trade may be carried on, through the north of Europe and Germany, to Switzerland, Austria, Italy, and even to Turkey; to which last country a new, expeditious, and cheap route is pointed out, and some interesting details given.

Under the present circumstances it becomes of importance to shew, that the trade with the northern powers is more beneficial to them than to Great Britain. In doing this, it will be demonstrated, that their jealousies respecting the commercial prosperity of this country originate in mistaken notions, both of our interests and their own, and that, though the disadvantages arising from a suspension of that trade would doubtless be great, both to the northern nations and to the British empire, they would be far greater to the

former than to the latter ; for, neither the French trade nor any other could compensate to them for the loss of the British commerce ; while the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland would find in its own unimproved, unexplored, various, and vast resources, means of uniting individual gain and prosperity with public security and greatness.

To illustrate these important points, to shew how trade in general, and to the north of Europe in particular, may be combined and extended to the benefit of all parties ; and, at the same time, how the disadvantage that would accrue from the loss and interruption of that trade might be made up to the United Kingdom, and the opportunities it would afford of introducing and extending various branches of manufactures, is one of the main designs of the work now offered to the public.

It appears to me particularly important to prove, that though our trade to the interior of the continent, *by* the north of Europe, be very beneficial, yet our trade *to* the northern nations themselves is far from being so ; the reader, therefore, will please to attend to the distinction between the one and the other.

The northern powers treat us, in our commercial intercourse, as if we were dependent upon them ; when, in fact, theirs are the only branches of trade, the balance of which is considerably against us.

To set this matter in its proper light is among the particular objects of the present publication. And, as I attribute my knowledge of the subject not to superior abilities, but to peculiar advantages in point of local information, derived from a long residence abroad ; so my aim has been to give useful information in the most intelligible form in my power, with-

out pretending to any of the niceties of composition, to which I am conscious I have no pretensions.

This work I began last year, and in the progress, finding that many materials were wanting, I again visited the continent, to procure authentic, more recent, and accurate information, on various points of importance.

The work concludes with a short analysis of the whole of our foreign commerce, shewing, that, as it is liable to great fluctuations and changes, true policy directs us to study and cultivate those internal resources, which may counterbalance them, and preserve the prosperity of the country.

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EUROPEAN COMMERCE,

&c. &c.

BOOK I.

CHAPTER I.

Of the Facility of carrying on Commerce with the Interior of the Continent, by Means of the Baltic Sea and the North of Germany, where it flourished earlier than in England, France, or Holland; illustrated with an Account of the Rise and Progress of Commerce in those Parts. Of the Hanseatic Towns. The armed Neutrality of 1780. The Convention between the Northern Powers and Great Britain, in 1801. The Present State of those Countries.

THE British nation, in the plenitude of commercial success, must naturally feel as all nations, and all bodies politic, and all individuals do, in similar circumstances. It must feel bold and confident, but it should be attentive to avoid becoming rash to risk, or negligent to preserve that happy pre-eminence to which it has attained.

The history of all nations shews that wealth and prosperity are much more easily obtained than they are preserved; for, though many nations have risen to wealth and power, yet, no one has yet found the art of preserving them for any great length of time.

The case is a very natural one, for commerce brings with it affluence and habits of thinking and acting that are contrary to that disposition to save and to produce, from which all wealth is originally derived.

But, if the example of all other nations; if the history of the world, for three thousand years, be not sufficient to inculcate

this principle ; let us look to the care and pains with which our ancestors laboured to procure us those blessings we now enjoy : Let the example of Edward III. Henry VII. Elizabeth, and (with a few exceptions) of all their successors, and of the members of both houses of parliament, have some influence ; at least, let us not imagine that Britain has become flourishing, without great attention and care, and then we shall certainly have the good sense to conceive that attention and care are necessary to preserve, what they were so essential to create.

At the present time, the prosperity of this empire is attacked altogether in a new way. Our enemy, the most bitter one we ever had, aims at increasing our expenses, and diminishing our means of supporting them, as the surest way of bringing on our ruin ; and it is a fact, that, with regard to the whole of the south of Europe, our commerce is at a stand. It is totally interrupted.

It is now only by the channels of which we are about to treat, that we can supply the continent of Europe, either with British manufactures or colonial produce. The channels are some of them new, and others of great antiquity. They are important, and not yet generally understood ; it is, therefore, natural and reasonable to expect the attention of all such as are anxious for the commercial success of this nation, or who are connected with that important source of our prosperity.

For the better understanding the subject, and that the mind of the reader may be more fully impressed with the necessity of attending to the northern channels of trade, some details will be given, tending to illustrate the progress by which this nation, and the nations of the north, have arrived at their present state ; what are their interests ; where they agree, and where they are opposed to each other.

Some observations will be found, tending to shew that the nations of the north have not looked on this country, and its commercial prosperity, with that friendly complacency that might have been expected, or that their own interest require. They have looked upon us as rivals, when they should have considered us as their best friends and customers. They are countries abounding in the produce of the earth ; this is a nation that purchases, manufactures, and consumes, more than any nation ever did ; it buys largely, and pays liberally ; what farther can nations, producing more than they consume, desire, than to see such a people flourish by its industry, and deal with them for what they do not want to keep ?

Let any of the powers in question see who purchases the most of their produce : who pays for their commodities with ready money, and gives their merchants credit, thereby enriching all classes of persons in their countries ? They will find it is Great Britain : yes, and that Britain only supplies them with what they cannot supply themselves.

Would those countries aspire at supplying others, and receive nothing but money in return ; let them look at the fate of France, when it followed that mistaken plan, under the auspices of Colbert, a minister who has obtained the name of Great. What is received from Russia, from Sweden, and Denmark, may be obtained by other means : but England does not apply elsewhere. She pays a great balance without reluctance ; but, if the system of duties and prohibitions is carried too far, it will necessarily lead to a change in her conduct. The balance in favour of the northern nations is already immense : they ought not to seek to augment it.

The cities on the south of the Baltic sea, where commerce first flourished in any northern clime, may again become the depositories of commercial riches ; and as the wild warlike spirit of France and Spain banished industry to the north, previous to the sixteenth century, the same cause may again produce the same effect ; and, indeed, it is not a little singular, that the last twelve years have restored to prosperity many of those places which had been on the decline since the great southern nations cultivated the arts of peace. But those great southern nations have once more adopted a system of warfare, of conquest, and oppression, calculated to banish industry and commerce, which have again fled to the north, where there is still the same wish to cherish, and a much greater power to protect than formerly.

That we may fairly see how to compare the present with the past, and appreciate the actual situation of affairs, let us review the history of the northern nations, and of our own, from the times when commerce first left the borders of the Mediterranean sea, and took up its abode on those of the Baltic.

The borders of the Baltic sea were totally unknown in the time of the Romans, whose conquests had not extended beyond the Danube and the Rhine*.

* History is very deficient in giving accounts of the state of Germany in the time of the Romans, and geography being little understood, and the use of maps almost unknown, there is no method of finding out what were the precise boundaries of their empire to the north. Cologne, one of the most ancient cities in Europe, appears to have been the farthest point to which their empire extended in that direction.

The Danes were the first people, living on the Baltic sea, who had any communication with the rest of Europe. Their piracies by sea and inroads on England, Ireland, and Scotland, are known since the eighth century; and Waerdenhagen, in his *Restitution of Decayed Intelligence*, p. 101, 1628, supposes the year 758 to be that in which the Danes first fortified the Netherlands, by driving piles, and making banks when the tide was low. The same cause that occasioned their emigration to other parts, viz. a degree of population above the power of the country to maintain, most probably led them to try to increase the extent of their own country, by rescuing part of it from the sea. The same author thinks that the sea not only covered Holland and Zealand, but also Flanders and Brabant; and that, in the country of Liege, the city of Tongres was once a seaport.

It is at any rate certain, that the adjacent country must not only have been well peopled, but that the inhabitants must have been possessed of a considerable share of art and knowledge to have made embankments to resist the force of the sea: that being the case, the south shore of the Baltic, which is adjacent, must have been fully peopled before the seventh century.

We find, from Guichardini's description of the Netherlands, that the city of Burges, in Flanders, was founded in 760 of the Christian æra, and that it was partly built from the ruins of a town that stood on the same spot before, and named from a bridge that was near the place. If that was so, the sea must have been dammed out from that country at a much earlier period.

The city of Brandenburg, according to the royal author who has written the memoirs of the house whose name it bears, was founded 416 years before the birth of Christ; but, as the truth of this depends on oral tradition, it is not to be considered as by any means certain. It is, however, not to be disputed, that, when Charlemagne subdued Germany, then divided into a number of states, Brandenburg was a very ancient city.

In the time of Charlemagne, the most powerful of the Saxon princes was Wittikind, whose capital was the village of *Fresburg*, a place without any fortifications; and the present cathedral of Minden is supposed to have been his palace.

When Charlemagne invaded the Saxons, on the north side of the Elbe, the Danes assisted them both by sea and land; three hundred ships were sent to ravage the coast of France; and so stoutly did the Saxons defend themselves, that the last battle fought by Wittikind against Charlemagne, in the year

784, lasted three whole days; and, in a few years after, the conqueror transplanted ten thousand of the principal families of Saxony into Brabant, Flanders, and Switzerland.

It was about the same time, that the Danes, and their Saxon neighbours begun to make inroads on the British islands, so that the inhabitants of the Baltic, on the south, understood war and navigation, and it is probable that part of their fleets must have passed the Sound; for, as they were under the dominion of Charlemagne to the south and west, they could not have come from any port farther south than the mouth of the Elbe.

In the year 800, the conquest of Saxony was completed by Charlemagne; but, as he had proceeded in his conquests over the Pagans, one purpose of which was the introduction of Christianity, he founded bishopricks as he proceeded in subduing the country; and the following was the order of their creation:

	YEAR.		YEAR.
<i>Osnaburg</i>	- - - 772	<i>Magdeburg</i>	- - - 784
<i>Halberstadt</i>	- - - 776	<i>Munster</i>	- - - 784
<i>Bremen</i>	- - - 779	<i>Verden</i>	- - - 786
<i>Minden</i>	- - - 780	<i>Heldershem</i>	- - - 796
<i>Paderborn</i>	- - - 784	<i>Hamburg</i>	- - - 798

Those dates shew the progress of Christianity in the northern parts of Germany; but the Sclavi, or Sclavonians, or Nortalbingi, were not converted till the twelfth century, by Henry the Lion, Duke of Saxony and Bavaria. The Nortalbingi, so called from living north of the Elbe, were bounded by the Vistula on the east, and the Baltic on the north, including Mecklenburg, Pomerania, the islands of Rugen and Usedom, at the mouth of the Oder.

When Christianity was introduced, a connection that was very slender before with Italy and other Christian countries, became more strict, the manners of the northern people grew more polished: by degrees, the produce of the south and the north was thus interchanged, and commerce settled on the south shores of the Baltic; and, along with commerce, many arts and manufactures were introduced.

Charlemagne, while he introduced Christianity and commerce into the north of Europe, revived it in the south. He rebuilt Genoa, that had been destroyed by the Lombards, and restored Florence, which had been laid in ruins for more than two centuries.

The revival of commerce in Europe may be fixed at this

period, and in the north it was not a revival but an introduction.

The Pagan priests, who had been driven from the converted countries; took refuge in Sweden and Denmark which were several centuries later in embracing the Christian religion.

The princes both of Poland and Denmark are begun to be reckoned from the beginning of the ninth century; and, as to the Norwegians, or Normans, nothing in their history can be depended upon before this period.

Dresden was founded by Charlemagne, in 808, as the castle of Hamburg had been four years before. Watch-towers, with fires, were also erected by the same monarch, at the mouths of the Elbe, Rhine, Seine, and Loire, to prevent the Danish and Norman pirates from ascending the rivers, and pillaging the country.

Mr. Anderson, in his *History of Commerce*, says, that those inroads compelled the cities near the Rhine to associate, long before the Hanseatic League existed.

The Danes and Normans, with ships carrying about one hundred men each, having two sails, besides oars, in 845, ventured up the Siene, as far as Paris, from which the inhabitants fled at their approach. They set fire to the town, which was then built of wood, and compelled the successor of Charles the Great, called Charles the Bald, to buy them off with 14,000 marks of silver.

A few years before, they had ventured up the Rhine as far as Cologne, which they burned also, together with Nimeguen and Treves. Even Spain and Italy were ravaged in several parts, and the British islands in almost every quarter. The island of Walcheren was then the depôt where those pirates lodged the spoils they had brought off from other countries. The history of the ninth century contains little else than details of the depredations of those banditti, and the feebleness of Europe after the death of Charlemagne.

In the island of Usedom, at the mouth of the Oder, the Danes destroyed the city of Winet, or Vinetum; it is described, by many writers, as a magnificent, opulent, and large town, inhabited both by Saxons and Vandals, who, while they lived peaceably, remained safe. Waerdenhagen says, that, though the spot on which it stood was then covered by the sea, the remains of many streets and magnificent buildings might in his time still be seen.

When it was destroyed, Helmodus says, that the Swedes, from the Isle of Gothland, carried away every thing that was

valuable; from whence sprung the splendor of Wisby, once so famous, which exceeded in grandeur Cologne and Nuremberg. Wisby is in the Isle of Gothland, and is represented as having become the emporium of trade in the northern parts.

Bremen was become a considerable town in the year 837; it was built of wood, and had three churches.

Zeric Zee, in the Isle of Schöen, was fortified about this time, (851). London was burnt by the Danes; and, eleven years after, the town of Brunswick was begun to be built.

Towards the end of this century, Alfred the Great, having, by wonderful efforts, created a navy, gave the Danes a battle by sea, and defeated them. It would be unpardonable not to notice here what the genius of one man can sometimes do to the whole of Europe. Charles the Great, of France, had kept under the restless banditti, who, after his death, laid the whole of Europe under contribution, till Alfred the Great, of England, under the most extraordinary difficulties, raised up a navy sufficient to keep them in some awe. A fleet of one hundred and twenty vessels was defeated and most of them sunk; which victory, in 876, was followed by a number of others, gained by that great prince.

When the Danes and Normans were repulsed from England, they took and ravaged Ghent, were they got much plunder as well as in the contiguous country, and in the northern provinces of France.

Burges was fortified in 890, and, becoming secure from the incursions of the barbarians, the foundation was laid for its future wealth and greatness.

The Normans, under Rolla, who had his depôt on the island of Walcheren, after their repulse from England, took Rouen, in France, and established themselves there, giving, ever after, their name to the province of Normandy, of which it is the capital.

Though christianity had been making some progress in Sclavonia, ever since the time of Charlemagne, yet, in 915, the Sclavonians and Danes attacked and pillaged Hamburg and Bremen, merely out of hatred to the followers of that religion; but when Henry the Fowler came to the throne, in 919, he fortified Leipzig, reduced the country to obedience, and forced the Vandals to abandon Brandenburg, then first raised to the rank of a marquise.

The principal city of Sweden, at this time called Byrca, or Birk, is represented, by Helmodus, as having a good harbour on the Baltic sea, whither the ships of the Danes, Norwegians,

Scravi, and other Scythians, usually resorted for commerce. Adam, of Bremen, speaks of this, as a splendid city; and, in speaking of Upsal, says, that the Pagan temple was covered with gold. It was not far distant from Byrca; however, it appears that Stockholm was not then begun to be built.

Puffendorf says, that Byrca could send 12,000 men into the field, and that it was one of the greatest and strongest cities of Sweden.

In 940, the first charter to the city of Magdeburg was dated on the 7th of June. Bardewick was then the chief city of Saxony, and a great emporium. By this charter, the inhabitants are allowed to fortify their city and establish municipal law. It is likewise to be a free city, and its inhabitants are to be free.

In 972, a second charter was granted to this town, directed to the merchants and their successors, by which they are granted a free egress and regress without paying any tolls in other towns, or at bridges, waters, or rivers, excepting only the customary tolls at Mentz, Cologne, Tiel, and Bardewick; which are the same privileges enjoyed now by the imperial cities.

Otho the Great fortified likewise the cities of Hall, Halberstadt, Helmstadt, and Quedlenburg.

The Christian religion made considerable progress during the reign of this emperor, who conquered the Danes, the Pagan Hungarians, Vandals, and Bohemians.

The first German silver mines were discovered at Gosar in Saxony, in 950: this success promoted farther research, and many others were soon after discovered in different parts of the north.

The city of Aldenberg, or Oldenburg, was at this time a great emporium of trade, and much frequented by shipping, till its harbour was destroyed by Margaret, Queen of Denmark; after which it fell to decay. It was situated within thirty miles of the spot where Lubeck now stands, which last town was not then in existence. Cologne was at this time (959) erected into an imperial city, which implies a city not subjected to any prince, but only to the emperor.

The woollen manufacture in Flanders began about 960, and fairs or markets, toll free, were established in that country at the same time.

In 966, the conversion of the people of Denmark to the Christian religion was completed.

The first regulations for the German merchants, at the Steelyard, in London, were made in 979, by King Ethelred. The

Emperor's men, as they were called, coming to the Steel-yard, were accounted worthy of good laws, and might buy ships; but it was not lawful for them to forestal the markets in London. They were to pay toll, and, at Christmas, two grey cloths and one brown, with ten pounds of pepper, five pair of gloves, two vessels of vinegar, and as much at Easter. Such was the first beginning of the customs, that have risen to such a height, in our days; yet this is but about eight hundred and twenty years ago, and during the last twenty they have increased more in amount than they did during the eight hundred.

In 1004, the Emperor Henry, of Bavaria, granted to the Archbishop of Bremen and his successors power to establish a fair there, to appoint fines, collect tolls, and regulate the weight of money, which was to be of fine silver; from which it would appear, that money was not coined, but the metal weighed. Mr. Anderson seems to think this strange, as there were coins in most other countries; but so much is to be set down for local customs, that nothing certain is to be concluded.

It was about the same time that Bremen was fortified, and that Russia was reduced to become tributary to Poland; the Sclavonians murdered their king, because he was a Christian, relapsed into Paganism, and, for the fifth time, besieged and took Hamburg, merely because it was inhabited by Christians.

Adam, of Bremen, speaking of Julin, in the Isle of Wollin, opposite the Oder, in the year 1080, calls it a most renowned city, a most celebrated mart, both for Christians and Greeks. This city he calls the first in Europe, and that it was filled with the merchandise of all the northern nations, and abounded in every thing that was curious and rare. No doubt this is a very inaccurate exaggeration, but it proves that trade and commerce were established in those countries at that time.

Lubeck was founded in 1140, and very soon increased, so as to become the first commercial city of the north of Germany, owing to its convenient situation on the Baltic sea, for commerce with all the nations on its confines.

The rapid prosperity of Lubeck excited both envy and emulation; and the envy soon was extended to all the towns, that by their efforts to equal Lubeck became prosperous. Denmark and Sweden, Holstein and Saxony, by becoming enemies to those trading towns, forced them to enter into the Hanseatic League, of which Lubeck was from the beginning considered as the chief, both during the greatest power of that confederacy, and since its decline, when it is become merely a name. Indeed, it must also be allowed, that the cause of the associa-

tion is entirely removed; it was for mutual defence; now no such thing is necessary.

Bremen was, by the middle of the twelfth century, a very flourishing place, and had even assisted the Emperor Henry IV. with a fleet to the Holy Land. Stettin, (a city of very great antiquity, but of which little is known), the capital of Pomerania, became also a city of flourishing trade; and the towns which formed the real centre of commerce rose every day to greater importance.

It was about the year 1169, when the commercial cities of Julin and Winnet had been destroyed by the Danes and other pirates, and when Lubeck, Rostoc, and other cities, had received their dispersed inhabitants, that the Hanseatic Confederacy acquired force. The cities wished to protect themselves from a similar calamity. The first towns were Lubeck, Wismar, Rostoc, Stralsund, Grypeswald, Anclam, Stettin, Colberg, Stolpe, Dantzic, Elbing, and Koningsberg. It was a standing rule of this league, that no city should be admitted into it, that was not situated on the sea, or on a navigable river, and that did not keep the keys of its own gates. They must likewise have the civil jurisdiction in their own hands, but they were allowed to acknowledge a superior lord.

The policy of those trading republics, at a time when war and chivalrous expedition were the occupation and glory of kings and princes, could not but be productive of good. It was necessary to have some head, and they chose for their protector the Grand Master, and German Knights of the Cross, established in Prussia, who had made a conquest of Livonia.

By this means the Hans Towns commanded the commerce of the Baltic, from Denmark to the bottom of the Gulph of Finland, together with that of the rivers which run into that sea, from the interior of an extensive country, producing a vast variety of articles of great importance in the commerce of the world.

The Hanseatic Confederacy held an extraordinary general assembly every ten years, at which they renewed their union, admitted new members, and excluded old ones, if there were good reasons for so doing. This league was solemnly renewed in 1284, and afterwards confirmed by a great number of succeeding assemblies.

The Confederacy was divided into four distinct classes, over each of which one city presided. At the head of the first division, as well as of the whole league, was Lubeck; here the general assemblies were held, the records and the common

stock kept. Cologne was at the head of the second class; Brunswick was at the head of the third; and Dantzic of the fourth class.

Thus united, they supported themselves against their common enemy, and procured the protection and friendship of many princes who would probably not have granted it to them individually. The towns lying on the shores of the Baltic were termed Easterlings, and those towards the Rhine, of which Cologne was the chief, the Western Hans Towns.

Dantzic was at first only a fort to guard the entrance of the Vistula, but its situation, on so fine a river, soon made it become a flourishing town. It belonged to the Dukes of Pomerania, by one of whom it was pledged to the Marquis of Brandenburg, who, in 1308, sold it to the Grand Master of the Teutonic Knights for 10,000 marks of silver.

Copenhagen was founded about the time that the Hanseatic League was formed, and it soon became so much superior to any other town in the island on which it stands, that the Danish government was transferred to it from Roschild, an inland city of Zealand, where it had hitherto been.

At this time, numbers of fishing vessels resorted every year, about the month of November, to the Isle of Usedom, at the mouth of the Oder, to catch herrings.

The first mention that is made of Lapland is in the end of the twelfth century, (in 1190), by a Danish historian,* who notices it as a country known to the Danes, Norwegians, Swedes, and Finlanders, though to the rest of the world it remained unknown for several centuries after.

The crusades to the Holy Land were a principal cause of the revival of civilization and commerce in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. All the princes, and all the nobles, knights, and gentlemen of Christendom took an interest in that great enterprise; they returned more civilized, and better acquainted with the use of those luxuries which southern climates and the commerce of the east furnish. They had visited Constantinople and Italy, where alone there remained, in Europe, any vestiges of ancient manners and ancient grandeur; and though the barons of those days had not the advantage of learning, they were not inferior in ambition, or natural talents, to those of any other age.

The southern shores of the Baltic and the Netherlands owed chiefly their wealth and greatness to this change of manners,

* This is mentioned by Saxo Grammaticus in his History of Denmark.

which introduced the luxuries of the south and of the east into countries to which they were till then almost unknown.

It was in the end of the twelfth century that the maritime laws of the Isle of Oleron were first promulgated by Richard the First of England, on his return from the Holy Land. And, in the beginning of the thirteenth century, the marine laws, drawn up by the merchants of Wisby made their appearance, and became the mercantile code for determining all matters in dispute amongst merchants, on all the shores of the Baltic, as well as of all the cities of the Hanseatic League. This proves that commercial matters were become of importance; the nature of trade, and the rights and interests of merchants well understood.

In 1203, to such consideration was the city of Cologne risen (and from that we may form some judgment of the other members of the Hanseatic League) that king John of England wrote to the magistrates of that town a very respectful letter of thanks for the honours, benefits, and assistance bestowed by them on his nephew Otho, king of the Romans, (afterwards the emperor Otho IV.) hoping for their farther assistance in aiding him to arrive at the highest pitch of honour; in return, John promises protection to the merchants of Cologne, residing in England.

Arnoldus, in speaking of the people of Denmark, and describing their wealth, says, that riches were so abundant that many were not only clothed in scarlet, but also in purple and fine linen. One might be apt to ascribe this gaudy dress, the first mark of opulence in a rude age, to the piracies of the Danes; but the same ancient author says, the herring fishery, on the coast of Schönen, was the source from which they derived their riches. All nations resorted thither, and brought precious commodities, and gold and silver, in exchange for herrings, from which Mr. Anderson very justly concludes, that the art of curing them with salt must have then been known.*

At this time, Amsterdam was not begun to be built; there was only then a small castle, called Amstel, from the river on which it stood. Gisbert, the Lord of the castle, brought numbers of poor cottagers to live in the neighbourhood: they began by fishing, and the whole world knows what that famous city has since been.

In 1209, Stralsund was founded, and the city of Lubeck was

* There is now no great fishery at Schönen: the herrings go more out into the ocean.

consumed by a fire that only left five houses standing in that street which went afterwards by the name of the street of Five Houses.

The city of Thorne, on the Vistula, was, about this time, built by the German knights of Prussia, for facilitating the commerce of corn and other produce of Poland down the river to Dantzic.

In 1232, Henry III. granted great privileges to the merchants of the Hans Towns, residing at the Steel-yard, in London, on account of the services they had done him beyond seas. The Easterlings, or people on the south shore of the Baltic, had so far excelled in arts that they are said to have coined the first sterling money in England, under this king's reign.

Stockholm, in Sweden, and Koningsberg, in Prussia, were both founded within one year of each other, (1255), at which time also we find the first treaty of commerce between any of the Hans Towns and the Netherlands; namely, between Hamburg and Henry, Duke of Brabant and Loraine, by which it obtained sundry privileges at Antwerp, with liberty to continue commerce in Brabant and Loraine, even though the prince should be at war with Holstein.

In 1273, the citizens of Lubeck made war, on their own account, against Stralsund, besieged, and pillaged it, killing many of the inhabitants, and carrying others prisoners away, which is an early proof of the power and wealth acquired by commerce.

In 1280, the king of Norway having refused the Hans Towns a continuation of the privileges they had enjoyed in his ports, the League for the first time exerted its strength in a collective body, blocked up the ports of Norway, and compelled the king to renew their privileges, and make them a compensation in money.

In 1296, the great company of merchants, adventurers of England, obtained privileges from John, Duke of Brabant, to establish a staple at Antwerp.

It was at the beginning of the fourteenth century that Queen Jane, of France, wife of Philip the Fair, residing a few days only at Bruges, was greatly incensed and mortified at the splendour of the citizens' wives. "I thought," said her majesty, "that I had been the only queen here, but I find there are above six hundred queens in this city."

Such was the power of the towns contiguous to the Baltic, in the beginning of the fourteenth century, that Edward II. complained to the King of Norway of his suffering several

English merchants to be imprisoned, and their goods seized, to the value of 310*l.* sterling, at the instigation of the Eastland merchants; who, by all possible ways, strove to obstruct the advantages of the English merchants. "These Easterlings were," says Anderson, "the Hans Towns on the south shores of the Baltic sea, who, in those times, were in great naval power, from Lubeck to Narva."

An earl of Flanders, in attempting to remove the seat of trade from Bruges to Sluys, was taken prisoner by the citizens, and kept in confinement four months, which proves the greatness of that city; for, at that time, the Earls of Flanders were possessed of great power, and ranked amongst the sovereigns of Europe, with many of whom they were connected, both by blood and treaties of alliance. And, a few years afterwards, Edward III. complained to the Earl of Flanders, and to the Burgomasters of the three good towns of Bruges, Ghent, and Ypres, of their inhabitants aiding his enemy, David Bruce, King of Scotland, with money, ships, ammunition, and provisions.

About the middle of the fourteenth century, the ships belonging to Venice and Genoa, and to the Hans Towns, were the largest of any, those of Spain excepted. The merchant-ships of the Hans Towns are said by some to have been the first that made use of cannon at sea, for fighting; but, though this fact may not be very well ascertained, it is certain that, if not the first, they at least adopted that mode of defence nearly at as early a period as any other power, for the League was itself by sea one of the greatest powers in Europe.

In 1348, a naval war began between the Hans Towns and Waldemar III. king of Denmark, occasioned by that monarch demanding toll for vessels passing the Sound. The circumstances of the contest are not well known; but that it terminated in favour of the League is clear, from this circumstance, that the king was glad, in order to obtain peace, to grant them the province of Schöonen, for thirteen years, by way of indemnity. This is the first account existing of any toll demanded in passing the Sound, which has since been the cause of much vexation to the commercial world. Soon after, another war broke out between those same merchants and the King of Denmark, which ended much more gloriously for the former.

The pensionary De Witt gives an account of the covenant entered into by the Hans Towns, in 1360, to the following purpose: "That seeing, by the wars then existing between Denmark and Sweden, that the eastern cities on the Baltic shores suffered great losses by sea, and, amongst others, were

plundered by pirates belonging to the great city of Wisby, sixty-six such cities covenanted together to scour the seas from such piracies, to secure their goods; and thus became, in the eastern trade, the only traffickers and carriers by sea, by that means beating all other nations out of the ocean, till, after the year 1400, when the art of salting and curing herrings was found out in Flanders; and that thereby the fisheries in the Netherlands were added to the Dutch manufactures, which proved of more importance than the trade and navigation of the Easterlings."

While the Hanseatic League was strictly adhered to, the towns so confederated were, as Anderson says, actual sovereigns of the northern seas, both without and within the Baltic; and, their ships being very large, they became general carriers for a great part of Europe.

When the king of Denmark took and plundered Wisby, the emporium of trade in the island of Gothland, the Hans Towns declared war against Denmark, and formed an alliance with the King of Norway, Duke of Mecklenburg, and Earl of Holstein, who commanded the whole fleet, except the division belonging to Lubeck; for which that city named a commander itself.

This federal fleet, in 1362, attacked and took Copenhagen and its castle; but the Danish fleet overcame the Lubeck squadron, took six ships, burned others, and compelled the remainder to fly to the port of Travemunde.

The defeat of the Lubeck squadron was soon repaired, and, in 1364, the Hanseatic fleet totally destroyed the whole fleet of Denmark, in or near the haven or road of Wismar.

Though the Danish King could not resist longer by sea, the Hans Towns contrived to engage the King of Sweden in the quarrel, and Holstein and Jutland assisting, the Danes were compelled to make peace; and, besides making new regulations for the duty payable on passing the Sound, great privileges were granted to the Hans Towns throughout the Danish dominions.

Cronenburg castle was first erected for the purpose of commanding the Sound, and protecting ships from pirates, then very numerous, for which service a small toll was exacted, and has since been greatly augmented, though the original service has long been done away.

At that time the Hans Towns were at the zenith of their glory, and the summit of their power. A society of merchants had defeated the King of Denmark, whose nation had

infested and oppressed all Europe for centuries;—that had swept the seas—conquered England—burned London, Paris, Cologne, and Ghent, besides many inferior cities; and ravaged Europe from the mouth of the Elbe to the shores of Italy.

The names of those cities, and the quotas they contributed to the general stock were as follows; and well do they merit being kept upon record.

Lubeck 100 imperial dollars, *Cologne* 100, *Bremen* 60, *Hamburg* 80, *Rostoc* 50, *Straslund* 50, *Wismar* 25, *Magdeburg* 40, *Brunswick* 50, *Dantzic* 80, *Lunenburg* 60, *Stettin* 40, *Grypeswald* 25, *Hildesheim* 30, *Goslar in the dutchy of Brunswick* 30, *Gottingen in do.* 30, *Eimbeck in do.* 10, *Hanover* 25, *Hamelin in the dutchy of Brunswick* 20, *Colberg* 95, *Stargard in Pomerania* 25, *Anclam* 18, *Stadt* 20, *Boxtehude in the dutchy of Bremen* 20, *Golnow in Pomerania* 8, *Thorne* 20, *Elbing* 20, *Konigsberg* 60, *Braunsberg* 20, *Revel* 50, *Derpt in Livonia* 20, *Pernau* 20, *Culm in Polish Prussia* 11, *Nimeguen* 35, *Daventer* 50, *Campen* 40, *Zwool* 23, *Zutphen in Guelderland* 30, *Arnheim* 30, *Bommel* 10, *Tiel* 10, *Harderwick* 30, *Duisburg in the dutchy of Cleves* 20, *Staven in Friesland* 35, *Groningen* 35, *Bolsuerd in Friesland* 30, *Ruremonde* 25, *Venloo* 20, *Riga* 50, *Emmerick in the dutchy of Cleves* 30, *Osnaburg* 30, *Soest in Westphalia* 35, *Dortmunde in do.* 30, *Munster* 40, *Wesel* 30, *Minden* 30, *Paderborn in Westphalia* 20, *Hervorden in do.* 15, *Lemgow in do.* 15, *Lipstad* 10, *Hamm in Westphalia* 25, *Warberg do.* 15, *Biefeld do.* 10, *Unna do.* 20.

This was only the ordinary annual contribution of the sixty-four towns, principally for salaries of officers, meetings, and general expenses.

We see, from the above list, that the towns, properly called Hans Towns, were, for the most part, either on the Baltic sea, or connected with it by rivers.

Other cities joined rather in alliance than confederacy. Antwerp, Bruges, Ostend, and Dunkirk, in the Netherlands; Calais, Rouen, Bordeaux, St. Maloes, Bayonne, and Marseilles, in France; Barcelona, Cadiz, and Seville, in Spain; Lisbon in Portugal; Naples in Italy; and Messina in Sicily; and London the metropolis of England.

This league had four counting-houses in different parts of Europe. One (the oldest) at Bruges, which was afterwards carried to Antwerp, where the house still is to be seen; one in London, at the Steel-yard, in Thames-street; the third at Novogorod, in Russia; and the fourth at Bergen, in Norway.

It is difficult to use power with moderation, and the Hans Towns, in the plenitude of their strength in giving law to the

commercial world, in the north were not always just. At their general assemblies they would forbid any of their members (towns) to traffic with such as did not belong to them. This compelled many to join that would not otherwise have done so; and, at the same time, it excited many enemies, as injustice and oppression never failed to do.

In 1395, the Hanseatic League triumphed over Queen Margaret of Denmark, a woman of great abilities and enterprize, and who had united under her single authority, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. They compelled her to deliver up king Albert and his son, who were her prisoners, and also to give them Stockholm. The cities of Lubeck, Hamburg, Dantzic, and five others of the Hanseatic League, bound themselves in the sum of 60,000 marks, that king Albert should, within three years, resign the whole kingdom of Sweden.

This was certainly the moment when the Hans Towns had attained the summit of their power. In the history of the world there is not a more extraordinary example of what industry and a strict union of interests for the effecting a great purpose can do.

We have seen that, in the ninth century, pirates and robbers, from Denmark and Norway, desolated Europe, and absolutely ruled the seas; and we have now seen an association of cities, many of which were not founded at that time, and not one of which was of much importance, in less than four centuries, rescuing the world from those barbarians, merely by attention to industry, and fidelity towards each other. Can we read this without reflecting on the ineffectual and useless wars of great princes during the same period?

Paris, London, Cologne, Ghent, Rouen, Bourdeaux, and many other places, were burned and destroyed by those northern hordes, yet neither the Kings of France or England, nor the Emperor of Germany, could revenge the cause or reduce the enemy. Not less, on the whole, than two millions of men were sacrificed in the crusades alone. The wealth that was expended was in proportion; for half the barons in christendom mortgaged or sold their lands to support those expeditions, whilst, for little more than 2,000 crowns a year, the Hans Towns kept up a connection that enabled them to protect, and, if we may be allowed the expression, to emancipate Europe!!

The History of the Commerce of the World contains little else, for 500 years, than the rise and progress of those towns, all of them on, or near, the shores of the Baltic sea; and if,

at the end of the fourteenth century, matters began to change, it was more owing to the discoveries made at that period than to any want of perseverance in those industrious merchants.

The mariner's compass, enabling seamen to quit sight of land without danger, made way for the discovery of a passage to the East Indies, by the Cape of Good Hope, and the discovery of America. Those two discoveries altered entirely the nature of commerce, and brought wealth into other parts. Sovereigns, who had before only cultivated the art of war, began to turn their views to commerce and the arts of peace.

Towards the close of the fourteenth century, England and the Great Master of Prussia, who was at the head of the Hans Towns, had many disputes and commercial differences, but they were amicably settled; though this shews that England now began to be a formidable rival to these merchants, yet occasional depredations still continued; for, in the last year of that century, an English ship, from Newcastle, in sailing up the Baltic, towards Prussia, was seized by vessels belonging to Wismar and Rostoe. The Hans Towns appear to have thought that all not belonging to their body, who presumed to navigate the Baltic, were invading on their rights.

In 1403, the Hans Towns complained, in a general assembly, and in very respectful terms, to Henry IV. of England, that the Gascons, (who were then subject to England), had seized a ship belonging to Stettin; Lubeck complained the same year, of a similar injustice done on the coasts of Britain. Hamburg joined in this latter complaint, and it appears to be the first time that it acted directly as a member of the federation of the Hans Towns. Those towns treated as sovereign with sovereign, in the grievances they had either to complain of, or redress; as for example, in 1406, at Dort, in Holland, and the following year at the Hague, where Henry IV's. ambassadors met those of the master general of the Teutonic order of Prussia, in consequence of which arrangement, and damages awarded, Henry gave his obligation, in 1409, to the master general, for 5318½ golden nobles and 13*d.* to be paid next St. Martin's day, on the express condition, that when the money should be paid to the envoy of the master general in England, it should be sent out of the country by bills of exchange, but not in bullion or coin, except so much as was necessary for expenses: nevertheless, only two years afterwards, the same monarch arrested several Hanseatic merchants, in the port of Boston, until satisfaction should be made for divers losses and

murders, committed by them on English merchants trading to Bergen. On giving security, to the amount of 2,000 marks, they, however, were released the following year.

It was about the year 1417, that the herring fishery deserted the Baltic sea, as it is mentioned then for the last time.

In 1428, the Hans Towns, on the Baltic sea, fitted out a fleet, at the port of Wismar, of 260 ships, carrying 12,000 men, which were intended a second time to destroy Copenhagen: but, notwithstanding their numbers and force, they did not succeed.

After this, Eric X. King of Denmark, by intrigue, contrived to render the people, in some of the Hans Towns, jealous of their magistrates, by which he gained over some of them; and, nearly about the same time, the Dutch increasing greatly in wealth, and laying very commodiously for commerce, the decline of the League began to be visible; so that, in 1431, after a cruel war with the King of Denmark, they were obliged to sue for that peace they had so long refused. Ships of foreign nations seized the opportunity, while the towns which had monopolized that trade were engaged in war, of entering through the Sound, and obtaining some share for it to themselves.

Henry VI. in 1437, renewed to the Hans Towns all the privileges they had enjoyed in former times in England, in the fullest manner, and also agreed to pay 19,274½ nobles to the master general in annual sums of 1000.

This same monarch, during a great dearth in England, wrote to Eric, King of Denmark, to allow an English merchant to supply himself with whatever corn he might want, hearing that it was very plentiful in his country, which proves that cultivation of land had accompanied the riches brought into Denmark by commerce.

The Grand Master of the Teutonic order, laying on heavy taxes on the newly built cities, their inhabitants joined with the nobles in a league for self-defence. The Emperor, Frederick III. took the Grand Master under his protection, and the other party had recourse to Casimer, King of Poland, for assistance. The war lasted twelve years, and the consequence was, that, in 1466, Poland got possession of the country that has since been called Polish Prussia, with the city of Culm. The knights were even obliged to hold the remainder of their territory as a fief of the crown of Poland. Such a long war, with an issue so unfortunate, must naturally lead to the decay of a commercial confederacy, such as that of the Hans Towns; and,

accordingly, we find that the part they acted, on the theatre of the world, became afterwards every day less important and conspicuous.

At this time, we see that the articles which the Easterlings imported into England were, corn, cordage, linen, cloth, hemp, flax, pitch, tar, masts, pipe staves, steel, iron, wax, wainscot ; but, as corn, of which they imported great quantities, sometimes arrived when the prices were very low, the proprietors of land and farmers complained, and an act was in consequence passed, Edward IV. chap. 3. (year 1463), by which corn imported was forfeited, when the price of wheat was under 6*s.* 8*d.* the quarter, rye 4*s.* and barley 3*s.* This act was not repealed till the time of James I. near two hundred and fifty years after.

It was about 1469, that the great Duke of Muscovy begun to make conquests, and, amongst others, obtained the commercial city of Novogorod, which he pillaged and destroyed. The Hans Towns then removed their emporium to Revel, where it remained about half a century, from whence it was removed to Narva.

In the year 1510, ships from all parts of Europe frequented the Baltic sea; and the city of Lubeck, having imprudently attacked the King of Denmark, and burned several places on the coast, that monarch pressed into his service, the ships of England, France, and Scotland. Sweden joined the Hanseatics; and Denmark hired, at a high price, ships from the same three nations, thereby becoming superior to the Swedish and Lubeck fleet. The port of Lubeck, with all the ships in it, was burned, as was likewise that of Wismar, together with the suburbs of the town. Warnemunde was destroyed, and the suburbs of Travemunde, together with many villages belonging to Stralsund and Rostoc. This was the second serious blow to the Hans Towns, and it was a blow they never recovered. But as misfortunes are said seldom to come single, another of a more permanent nature soon followed.

The Hans Towns had long oppressed the Danish merchants who came into their ports with goods; they fixed an arbitrary price on their merchandise, and refused, when once arrived, the privilege of carrying them away. The only remedy was, to warehouse the goods with some person in the town, till circumstances might become more favourable. To revenge, as well as to remedy this, it was ordered by the King of Denmark, that all such merchandise should in future be exposed for sale,

only at Copenhagen, to which place he invited foreign merchants ; so that it became an emporium for all Danish merchandise, to the great detriment of all the Hans Towns on the Baltic.

In 1518, no less than fourteen towns were cut off from the Hanseatic League, which now was so much engaged in quarrels, that the dangers it brought on its members was nearly a counterpoise to the protection it afforded them. In short, the tide of human affairs was turned, with respect to them; and that current is one which frequently runs with irresistible force.

The League, however, received some advantage from a quarrel that broke out between Denmark and Sweden, when Lubeck and Dantzic lent, to Gustavus Vasa, nine ships of war, which turned the fortune of the day ; so that the Hans Towns received, in recompense, great privileges from the Swedish monarch.

The former reputation of the Hans Towns induced Henry VIII. of England, in 1535, to apply to them, and he offered 100,000 crowns for their aid, to place a king, to his liking on the throne of Denmark. The merchants undertook this political speculation, but Gustavus of Sweden, to whom the towns had been insolent, since the time they had assisted him, joined the Danes ; the Hanseatics were defeated in an engagement at sea, and lost a vast number of their ships, thereby hastening the decline of the League.

The singular success of the towns on the south shore of the Baltic, or on those rivers that run into it, at so early a period, and when commerce was so little known, and its interests so ill understood, is a proof that by nature they are well situated for the purposes of trade. The establishment of wealth and industry, in those regions, was not the effect either of policy or force, like the foundation of Carthage, by the city of Tyre ; of Tadmor, in the wilderness, by Solomon ; or of Alexandria, in Egypt, by the conqueror who gave it his name : it rather resembled the establishment of it in contradiction and opposition to all the surrounding nations, and to all cotemporary events.

The first cities that flourished in the Mediterranean were the inventors of navigation, and rose to wealth without a rival. Those that were afterwards founded and flourished, either rose under the protection of some powerful people, or they became powerful by slow degrees and then became commercial. But we have seen commerce rise in the north, in independent and unprotected cities, at the time when pirates overrun the seas, and the land was in the possession of princes, who neither understood nor valued commerce. In the midst of opposition,

oppression, and an accumulation of difficulties, we have seen a commercial power rise up, that began by destroying the pirates at sea, and finished by turning the attention of princes from romantic schemes of conquest to the more solid and fair views of acquiring wealth by means of industry.

The spot on which this wonderful effect was produced was the same one to which the ambition of France has again banished commerce on the continent; but now, circumstances are infinitely more favourable. Let us take a comparative view of circumstances, before we proceed farther in our historical detail.

When the cities in the north of Germany first began to flourish, commerce consisted entirely in such articles of produce as are only found in particular places; the principal of which were minerals, and the productions of Asia, jewels and aromatics. This was only introducing into the north the same species of traffic that had from the earliest records of history flourished on the borders of the Mediterranean sea, in Syria, and Egypt; but, in a northern climate, the wants of men are different. Indolence and ease are not prevailing propensities, and their slender influence over the human frame was completely overcome by the cravings of a keen appetite, and the necessity of defence against the cold of the atmosphere.

Manufactures and fishing were, therefore, studiously and eagerly followed after; but not as in Egypt, and the luxurious nations of the east and of the south. They neither sought for the splendid in clothing, nor the delicious in food. Wool was the best material for warm clothing, and herrings the fish that was found in the greatest plenty for food. Herrings are caught in greater quantities than any other species of fish; but they are periodical, and, unless a means of preserving them had been discovered, mankind could never have derived much advantage from their great abundance. The cities of Flanders were the first to excel in the manufacture of cloth, and in the catching and curing of fish, though we have seen that, in the latter, the Danes also excelled.

The towns which had at first begun to acquire riches, merely by the transport and traffic of produce from the east and south, now began to extend it to materials for manufactures, for manufactured goods, and for commerce of another sort.

Grain, and the common necessities of life, make scarcely an article of commerce in a rude state of society, where there are few or no manufactures; for, as there is nothing to give in exchange, each nation is obliged to procure those necessities for

for itself; but, when a number of people crowd together in towns, in consequence of commercial wealth, they are obliged to apply to other parts for the common articles, which poorer nations provide for themselves; and it is this which gives the last degree of extension to commerce.

The northern towns, before the period that I have last mentioned, had extended their commerce to every article then known; and, at that time, the Italian cities, and those on the Baltic sea, engrossed the whole commerce of Europe.

The discovery of the passage to India, by the Cape of Good Hope, and of America, with the facility which the discovery of the magnetic needle had given to the navigation of the ocean, produced a great change, and it was of an unfavourable nature for these towns. In the first place, the Italian cities, which had till then possessed exclusively the commerce with Asia, lost that lucrative trade, which fell all into the hands of the Portuguese; who, nevertheless, still found it necessary to have their depôts, for the north of Europe, in the same cities as the Venetians and Genoese had formerly done; but this was not of any long duration; for the Dutch, soon getting a footing in India, drew that commerce to themselves; and they had no occasion for depôts at Bruges, Antwerp, or any other places in the north.

The persecutions of the Spaniards drove many of the most industrious of the inhabitants of the Netherlands into England and other countries. Thus their manufactures declined; and the Dutch, discovering a better method of curing herrings than had before been known, drew that trade, as well as that of India, to themselves.

While the Flemish were manufacturers, the commerce was divided, as it were, amongst the Hans Towns; but when Holland itself, the most mercantile people in the world, got possession of those original sources, they kept the trade arising from them entirely to themselves.

The fall of the Hans Towns began in their becoming warlike instead of commercial, and preferring political importance to wealth obtained by their original modes. The rise of Holland accelerated their decline; and the general attention which other nations began to pay to manufactures and commerce, by distributing them more equally amongst people, in different parts of Europe, destroyed that superiority which the northern nations had so long enjoyed.

The Hanseatic towns had, in those days, when they understood the nature and importance of commerce better than other nations, obtained, for their merchants, privileges that,

in times when those latter grew more enlightened, became burthensome and obnoxious; but the members of the League, by a fatality, (if it may be so called), or, at least, by a conduct which is very common to nations and states, in the time of prosperity, never took into account the changes that time and circumstances had brought about; they never considered that the time was past, when they could either deceive, cajole, or coerce other powers, and that, therefore, they must depend on prudent management for the preservation of those advantages they had obtained under more favourable circumstances, and still retained, in England, till the time of Edward VI. when the inconveniences were felt by British merchants. The merchants supported their own claims, by accusing the Hanseatics of monopoly, of defrauding the customs, of extending the privileges granted to them, far beyond the original intention, which only went to give to certain towns privileges relative to articles of their own produce, whereas they had become general merchants, and had extended the same advantages to places never intended. England, which had long been rising in the woollen manufacture, as a rival to Flanders, possessed none of the advantages of foreign trade; for, of the cloths manufactured, not one-twentieth were exported by English merchants, but the whole nearly by those of the Hanseatic towns.

When, with the advice of the Privy Council, Edward VI. deprived the Hanseatics of their privileges, the case was instantly reversed, and the export trade fell nearly all into the hands of English merchants.

The privileges of the Hanseatic body, at the Steel-yard, were again restored by Queen Mary, who was married to Philip, the son of the Emperor; but this was of short duration, and a conclusion to their successful convention with England was put in the following reign of Elizabeth; when the Hans Towns, in conjunction with the Emperor of Germany, mistaking their own power, and the vigour and wisdom of the English queen, banished all the English merchant-adventurers, with a view to compel her to renew the privileges in England that had first been revoked during the short reign of her brother Edward and renewed by Mary, but again suspended.

The effect produced was directly opposite from that intended, and, instead of renewing the privileges, that spirited Queen ordered the Steel-yard-house to be shut up on the same day that the English merchants were ordered to quit Germany; thereby putting an entire stop to this commerce, which, by

means of their great capital and superior knowledge, was still considerable, though not protected by any peculiar privilege, as they only had for some time traded, on the footing of her majesty's subjects.

This unfortunate retaliation occasioned an assembly of some of the principal members of the League at Lubeck, in 1591, when they remonstrated in a style of indignation, reproach, and menace, to which Queen Elizabeth answered, that she was willing to attribute their want of respect to their secretary, but that she set no sort of value on their hostile intentions.

There is no doubt that the assistance which those towns had attempted to give in fitting out the great armada* for the invasion of this country, had not a little contributed to this inflexible severity; but it was an effect arising from the progress of things which must very soon have been produced.

The great trade of the Mediterranean was now nearly at an end, Italy having lost the India commerce; so that though the manufactures of the north were still wanted, there was nothing to bring in return. Waerdenhagen says, that, about the year 1600, the Dutch got almost entire possession of the trade to the Mediterranean; so that the Hamburghers, when they went there sold their ships, and returned overland, having nothing to bring back; and Wheeler, the secretary to the merchant adventurers in England, who wrote in 1601, says, "that the Hanseatic towns were so much decayed, that the state (England) needed no longer to fear them. That their ships, formerly so numerous, were few, that their towns had a difficulty in paying the quota of expenses," and in the old, but significant language of those times, said, "that most of their teeth were out, and the rest loose."

To this epoch we may, indeed, refer the final dissolution of the Hanseatic League, as a formidable body, though, till 1641, they still occasionally continued to interfere in commercial politics, and particularly by joining with Holland against the Danes, for exacting too high duties from ships that passed the Sound.

But, though the League was at an end in reality, and the towns ceased entirely in the middle of the seventeenth century to act, as it were, in a corporate or federal capacity, the individual members did not all of them decay. Hamburg, for one, rose to greater height after than it had ever been before; and

* Sixty ships laden with stores for Spain, belonging to the Hans Towns, were taken or destroyed by the English.

it was towards the end of that century reckoned amongst commercial cities, as next to London and Amsterdam ; and as the general wealth and commerce of Europe increased, it continued to increase, not certainly in regard to its proportional, but in its real wealth.

The case of Lubeck has been very different from that of Hamburg : it fell with the society of which it was the principal member ; and, after its fate was sealed, still continued to decline.

Bremen and other towns continued, like Lubeck, to decline ; while Dantzic, and some others, like Hamburg, continued to increase in commerce ; so that, though that part of the continent had sunk in its rank in Europe, principally from others rising, and though many of its cities exhibited marks of decay, yet nothing has taken place that gives us room to consider the country, upon the whole, as a country on the decline.

Holland first, then England and France, by paying attention to manufactures and commerce, which the two latter had so long neglected, certainly altered, the situation of affairs ; but, by the singular changes that have taken place, within the last sixteen years, commerce is driven from the south parts of the continent ; and, as England cannot trade alone, if there is any intention to encourage commerce, it can only be done by returning to those channels which we see are so well fitted by nature for that purpose.

The circumstances of different nations have already compelled commerce to return, in part, to the northern ports ; but, though necessity will do a great deal, much still remains to be done by exertion, arrangement, and adopting the means that are fittest for the promotion of so desirable an object.

The political situation of the countries adjacent to the Baltic sea is as much changed in one direction, as that of the towns is in another.

Russia, now the greatest empire in the world, is become, in point of defending itself, the most invulnerable of all nations ; so that it may be considered as a first rate power, though it was formerly the very reverse, owing to its being inferior to all surrounding nations in civilization, and unequal to maintain a contest, either with the Turks, the Tartars, the Swedes, or the Poles. It had not then any port in the Baltic sea ; it has now the most considerable ports in it.

Prussia, now occupies those parts where the Hanseatic wealth chiefly centred, and is sufficiently powerful to make their rights to be respected.

Sweden and Denmark have still considerable power; and, by their conjunction against Russia, can entirely obstruct the commerce of the north.

Though Poland is as a kingdom no more, yet the name alone is changed. Each of the partitioning nations are able to maintain the rights of those towns that are contained in it.

To that combination of cities, for mutual defence, which we saw take place in the infancy of commerce, we have of late years seen succeed a combination of crowned heads; and the same common interest that, in the eleventh century, gave birth to the Hanseatic League, in the end of the eighteenth, produced the armed neutrality.

The commerce of the Baltic consists, in great part, in iron, timber, hemp, tar, and such articles as are much wanted by nations in a state of warfare; and policy requires that contending parties should endeavour to deprive each other of the means of annoyance. That circumstance has given rise to the definition of certain articles, which are distinguished by the name of contraband of war; the laws and conventions relative to which, between nations, are different from those concerning other objects.

England and France, the nations most frequently at war, are the most deeply interested in this sort of maritime law; and England in particular, having the greatest power at sea, feels the advantage of this system above any other nation.

The Russians, Danes, and Swedes, on the contrary, are interested in supporting the freedom of this trade. This opposition of interests, began first during the American war, to assume the appearance of a regular resistance, on the part of the northern nations, to the laws, according to which the belligerent powers conducted themselves.

This brought forth, in the year 1780, memorials, attended by formidable armaments, on the part of the northern powers; the object has been described, and the combination entered into, was termed the armed neutrality; the circumstances of which are too recent to be forgotten.

The good correspondence which had been preserved between England and Russia, from their earliest connection, without any interruption,* was now, for the first time, converted into

* A short interruption of good offices, in the time of Oliver Cromwell, ought not to be reckoned as any thing serious; and the withdrawing from English subjects the great privileges they once enjoyed, was a natural consequence of the better understanding of their own commercial interest.

jealousy; and, before the termination of the American war, hostilities were more than once likely to have taken place.

After peace was re-established, as the point in dispute had not been settled, the northern powers still continued discontented, and that discontent was directed chiefly by Russia against Great Britain, the power the most interested on the opposite sides of the question; so that a treaty of commerce, that expired in 1786, between the two nations was not renewed till 1793, Russia refusing to act in her former friendly manner.

The events that took place during that interval are well known to the reader, and foreign to this subject; but the dissatisfaction still lay lurking at the bottom; and, had it not been for the nature of the war in which we were engaged, might probably have broken out in 1794, when the same inconveniences were felt as in 1780. As it was, Russia, which wished success to the English efforts, made no remonstrance; but when, for other reasons, she became discontented, Denmark and Sweden were found quite ready to renew the armed neutrality, and to threaten England.

Matters did not, however, go on with the same tranquillity as in 1780; but it is not consistent with the nature of this work to enter into details of hostilities, whether by land or sea; it is sufficient to state, that the attack on Copenhagen, in 1801, and the general feelings and wishes of the nations concerned terminated in the following convention:

CONVENTION between his Britannic Majesty, and the Emperor of Russia. Signed at St. Petersburg, the 5-17th June, 1801.

In the Name of the most Holy and Undivided Trinity.

THE mutual desire of his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and of his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, being not only to come to an understanding between themselves, with respect to the differences which have lately interrupted the good understanding and friendly relations which subsisted between the two states; but also to prevent, by frank and precise explanations upon the navigation of their respective subjects, the renewal of similar altercations and troubles which might be the consequence of them; and the common object of the solicitude of their said majesties being to settle, as soon as can be done, an equitable arrangement of those differences, and an invariable determination of their principles upon the rights of neutrality, in their application to their respective monarchies, in order to unite more closely the ties of friendship and good intercourse, of which they acknowledge the utility and the benefits; have named and chosen for their plenipotentiaries, *viz.* his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne Lord Baron St. Helens, his said majesty's privy counsellor, and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, Sleur Nikita, Count de Panin, his privy counsellor, minister of state for the department of foreign affairs, present chamberlain, knight grand cross of the orders of St. Alex.

ander Newsky, and of St. Anne of the first class, of that of St. Ferdinand, and of Merit, of the Red Eagle, and of St. Lazarus; who, after having communicated their respective full powers, and found them in good and due form, have agreed upon the following points and articles:

Article I.—There shall be hereafter between his Britannic Majesty and his Imperial Majesty of all the Russias, their subjects, the states and countries under their dominion, good and unalterable friendship and understanding, and all the political, commercial, and other relations of common utility between the respective subjects, shall subsist as formerly, without their being disturbed or troubled in any manner whatever.

Art. II.—His Britannic Majesty and the Emperor of all the Russias declare, that they will watch over the most rigorous execution of the prohibitions against the trade of contraband of their subjects with the enemies of either of the high contracting parties.

Art. III.—His Britannic Majesty and his Imperial Majesty of all the Russias having resolved to place under a sufficient safeguard the freedom of commerce and navigation of their subjects, in case one of them shall be at war, whilst the other shall be neuter, have agreed:—

1. That the ships of the neutral power may navigate freely to the ports, and upon the coasts of the nations at war.

2. That the effects embarked on board neutral ships shall be free, with the exception of contraband of war, and of enemy's property; and it is agreed not to comprise, under the denomination of the latter, the merchandise of the produce, growth, or manufacture of the countries at war, which should have been acquired by the subjects of the neutral power, and should be transported for their account, which merchandise cannot be excepted in any case from the freedom granted to the flag of the said power.

3. That in order to avoid all equivocation and misunderstanding of what ought to be considered as contraband of war, his Britannic Majesty, and his Imperial Majesty of all the Russias, declare, conformably to the eleventh article of the treaty of commerce concluded between the two crowns on the 10th (21st) February, 1797, that they acknowledge as such the following articles only; *viz.* cannons, mortars, fire arms, pistols, bombs, grenades, balls, bullets, firelocks, flints, matches, gunpowder, saltpetre, sulphur, cuirasses, pikes, swords, sword belts, knapsacks, saddles and bridles, excepting, however, the quantity of the said articles which may be necessary for the defence of the ship and of those who compose the crew; and all other articles whatever not enumerated here, shall not be reputed warlike and naval stores, nor be subject to confiscation, and of course shall pass freely, without being subjected to the smallest difficulty, unless they be considered enemy's property in the sense above specified. It is also agreed, that that which is stipulated in the present article shall not be prejudicial to the particular stipulations of one or the other crown with other powers, by which articles of a similar kind should be reserved, prohibited, or permitted.

4. That in order to determine what characterises a blockaded port, that denomination is given only to a port where there is, by the dispositions of the power which attacks it with ships stationary, or sufficiently near, an evident danger in entering.

5. That the ships of the neutral power shall not be stopped but upon just causes and evident facts: that they be tried without delay, and that the proceeding be always uniform, prompt, and legal.

In order the better to ensure the respect due to these stipulations, dictated by the sincere desire of conciliating every interest, and to give a new proof of their uprightness and love of justice, the high contracting parties enter here into the most formal engagement to renew the severest prohibitions to their captains, whether of ships of war or merchantmen, to take, keep, or conceal on board their ships, any of the articles which, in the terms of the present convention, may be reputed contraband, and respectively to take care of the execution of the orders which they shall have published in their admiralties, and wherever it shall be necessary.

Art. IV.—The two high contracting parties, wishing also to prevent all subject of dissension in future, by limiting the right of search of merchant ships going under

convoy to those cases only in which the belligerent power might experience a real prejudice by the abuse of the neutral flag, have agreed:

1. That the right of searching merchant ships belonging to the subjects of one of the contracting powers, and navigating under convoy of a ship of war of the said power, shall only be exercised by ships of war of the belligerent party, and shall never extend to letters of marque, privateers, or other vessels, which do not belong to the royal or imperial fleet of their majesties, but which their subjects shall have fitted out for war.

2. That the proprietors of all merchant ships belonging to the subjects of one of the contracting sovereigns, which shall be destined to sail under convoy of a ship of war, shall be required, before they receive their sailing orders, to produce to the commander of the convoy their passports and certificates, or sea letters, in the form annexed to the present treaty.

3. That when such ship of war, having under convoy merchant ships, shall be met with by a ship or ships of war of the other contracting party, who shall then be in a state of war, in order to avoid all disorder, they shall keep out of cannon shot, unless the state of the sea, or the place of meeting, render a nearer approach necessary; and the commander of the ship of the belligerent power shall send a boat on board the convoy, where they shall proceed reciprocally to the verification of the papers and certificates that are to prove, on one part, that the ship of war is authorised to take under its escort such or such merchant ships of its nation, laden with such a cargo, and for such a port: on the other part, that the ship of war of the belligerent party belongs to the royal or imperial fleet of their majesties.

4. This verification made, no search shall take place, if the papers are found in form, and if there exists no good motive for suspicion. In the contrary case, the commander of the neutral ship of war (being duly required thereto by the commander of the ship or ships of war of the belligerent power) is to bring to and detain his convoy during the time necessary for the search of the ships which compose it, and he shall have the faculty of naming and delegating one or more officers to assist at the search of the said ships, which shall be done in his presence on board each merchant ship, conjointly with one or more officers appointed by the commander of the ship of the belligerent party.

5. If it happen that the commander of the ship or ships of the power at war, having examined the papers found on board, and having interrogated the master and crew of the ship, shall see just and sufficient reason to detain the merchant ship, in order to proceed to an ulterior search, he shall notify such intention to the commander of the convoy, who shall have the power to order an officer to remain on board the ship thus detained, and to assist at the examination of the cause of her detention. The merchant ship shall be carried immediately to the nearest and most convenient port belonging to the belligerent power, and the ulterior search shall be carried on with all possible diligence.

Art. V.—It is in like manner agreed, that if any merchant ship thus convoyed should be detained, without just and sufficient cause, the commander of the ship or ships of war of the belligerent power shall not only be bound to make to the owners of the ship and of the cargo a full and perfect compensation for all the losses, expenses, damages, and costs, occasioned by such a detention, but shall moreover undergo an ulterior punishment for every act of violence or other fault which he may have committed, according as the nature of the case may require. On the other hand, the convoying ship shall not be permitted, under any pretext whatsoever, to resist by force the detention of the merchant ship or ships by the ship or ships of war of the belligerent power; an obligation to which the commander of a ship of war with convoy is not bound to observe towards letters of marque and privateers.

Art. VI.—The high contracting parties shall give precise and efficacious orders, that the judgments upon prizes made at sea shall be conformable with the rules of the most exact justice and equity; that they shall be given by judges above suspicion, and who shall not be interested in the affair in question. The government of the respective states shall take care that the said decisions shall be speedily and duly executed, according to the forms prescribed. And in case of an unfounded detention, or other contravention to the regulations stipulated by the present article, the owners of such ship and cargo shall be allowed damages proportioned to the loss occasioned

thereby. The rules to observe for these damages, and for the case of unfounded detention, as also the principles to follow for the purpose of accelerating the process, shall be the matter of additional articles, which the contracting parties agree to settle between them, and which shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted in the present act. For this effect, their Britannic and Imperial majesties mutually engage to put their hand to the salutary work, which may serve for the completion of these stipulations, and to communicate to each other, without delay, the views which may be suggested to them, by their equal solicitude to prevent the least grounds for dispute in future.

Art. VII.—To obviate all the inconveniences which may arise from the bad faith of those who avail themselves of the flag of a nation without belonging to it, it is agreed to establish for an inviolable rule; that any vessel whatever, in order to be considered as the property of the country, the flag of which it carries, must have on board the captain of the ship, and one half of the crew of the people of that country, and the papers and passports in due and perfect form; but every vessel which shall not observe this rule, and which shall infringe the ordinances published on that head, shall lose all rights to the protection of the contracting powers.

Art. VIII.—The principles and measures adopted by the present act shall be alike applicable to all the maritime wars in which one of the two powers may be engaged, whilst the other remains neutral. These stipulations shall, in consequence, be regarded as permanent, and shall serve for a constant rule to the contracting powers in matters of commerce and navigation.

Art. IX.—His majesty the King of Denmark, and his majesty the King of Sweden, shall be immediately invited by his Imperial majesty, in the name of the two contracting parties, to accede to the present convention, and, at the same time, to renew and confirm their respective treaties of commerce with his Britannic majesty; and his said majesty engages, by acts which shall have established that agreement, to render and restore to each of these powers all the prizes that have been taken from them, as well as the territories and countries under their dominion, which have been conquered by the arms of his Britannic majesty since the rupture, in the state in which those possessions were found at the period at which the troops of his Britannic majesty entered them. The orders of his said majesty, for the restitution of those prizes and conquests, shall be immediately expedited, after the exchange of the ratifications of the acts, by which Sweden and Denmark shall accede to the present treaty.

Art. X.—The present convention shall be ratified by the two contracting parties, and the ratifications exchanged at St. Petersburg, in the space of two months as furthest from the day of the signature.

In faith of which the respective plenipotentiaries have caused to be made two copies thereof perfectly similar, signed with their hands, and have caused the seal of their arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at St Petersburg, the 5—17th June, 1801.

(L. S.) St. Helens.

(L. S.) N. Cte. de Paris.

Formula of the Passports and Sea Letters which are to be delivered, in the respective Admiralties of the States of the two high contracting Parties, to the Ships and Vessels which shall sail from them, conformable to Art. IV. of the present Treaty.

Be it known, that we have given leave and permission to N—, of the city or place of N—, master and conductor of the ship N—, belonging to N—, of the port of N—, of — tons or thereabouts, now lying in the port or harbour of N—, to sail from thence to N—, laden with N—, on account of N—, after the said ship shall have been visited before its departure in the usual manner by the officers appointed for that purpose; and the said N—, or such other as shall be vested with powers to replace him, shall be obliged to produce, in every port or harbour which he shall enter with the said vessel to the officers of the place, the present license, and to carry the flag of N—, during his voyage. In faith of which,
 &c.

First separate Article.

The pure and magnanimous intentions of his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias having already induced him to restore the vessels and goods of British subjects, which had been sequestered in Russia, his said majesty confirms that disposition in its whole extent; and his Britannic majesty engages himself, also, to give immediate orders for taking off all sequestration laid upon the Russians, Danish, and Swedish properties, detained in English ports, and to prove still more his sincere desire to terminate amicably the differences which have arisen between Great Britain and the Northern courts; and, in order that no new incident may throw obstacles in the way of this salutary work, his Britannic majesty binds himself to give orders to the commanders of his forces by land and sea that the armistice now subsisting with the courts of Denmark and Sweden shall be prolonged for a term of three months from the date of this day; and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, guided by the same motives, undertakes, in the name of his allies, to have this armistice maintained during the said term.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty signed this day; and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at the same time.

In faith of which, the respective plenipotentiaries have caused to be made two copies thereof perfectly similar, signed with their hands, and have caused the seal of their arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, 5—17th June, 1801.

(L. S.) *St. Helens.*

(L. S.) *N. Cte. de Panin.*

Second separate Article.

The differences and misunderstandings which subsisted between his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, being thus terminated, and the precautions taken by the present conventions not giving further room to fear that they can in future disturb the harmony and good understanding which the two high contracting parties have at heart to consolidate, their said majesties confirm anew, by the present convention, the treaty of commerce, of the 10th February (21) 1797, of which all the stipulations are here cited, to be maintained in their whole extent.

This separate article shall have the same force and validity as if it were inserted word for word in the treaty signed this day; and the ratifications thereof shall be exchanged at the same time.

In faith of which, the respective plenipotentiaries have caused to be made two copies thereof perfectly similar, signed with their hands, and have caused the seal of their arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, the 5—17th June, 1801.

(L. S.) *St. Helens.*

(L. S.) *N. Cte. de Panin.*

Declaration.

Although the magnanimous intention of his Imperial Majesty of all the Russias, to do full and entire justice to those British subjects who have suffered losses, during the troubles which have disturbed the good intelligence between his empire and Great Britain, be already proved by facts, his Imperial Majesty, consulting solely his good faith, has, moreover, authorized the undersigned plenipotentiary to declare, as he does declare by these presents:

“That all the ships, the merchandize, and the property of British subjects, which had been sequestered during the last reign in Russia, shall not only be faithfully restored to the said British subjects, or to their agents, but also that for the effects which may have been alienated in such a manner as to render it impossible for them to be restored in kind, a suitable equivalent shall be granted to the proprietors, which equivalent shall be hereafter determined, according to the rules of equity.”

In faith of which, we, plenipotentiary of his Imperial Majesty of all the Russias, have signed the present declaration, and have caused the seal of our arms to be affixed thereto.

Done at St. Petersburg, 5—17th June, one thousand eight hundred and one.

(L. S.) N. Cte. de Panin.

ADDITIONAL ARTICLES, signed at Moscow, the 20—8th October, 1801, to the Convention between His Majesty and the Emperor of Russia, concluded at St. Petersburg, the 17—5th June 1801.

WHEREAS by the VIth Article of the Convention concluded the 17—5th June 1801, between his Britannic Majesty and his Imperial Majesty of all the Russias, it was stipulated that the two high contracting parties should mutually agree on some Additional Articles, which should fix the regulations and principles to be observed, as well as for accelerating the judicial proceedings upon captures made at sea, as for the damages which should be allowed to the owners of neutral ships and cargoes, in cases of unfounded detention, their said majesties have named and authorised for this purpose, viz. his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne Lord Baron St. Helens, a peer of the said united kingdom, one of his said majesty's most honourable privy council, and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, the Sieur Alexander, Prince de Kourakin, his vice chancellor, actual privy counsellor, minister of the council of state, actual chamberlain, grand chancellor of the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem, and knight of the Russian orders of St. Andrew, of St. Alexander Newsky, and of St. Anne of the First Class; of those of Prussia, of the Black and Red Eagles; of those of Denmark, of the Danebrog and of the Perfect Union; and grand cross of the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem: and the Sieur Victor, Count de Kotschoubey, his actual privy counsellor, minister for the department for foreign affairs, senator, actual chamberlain, and knight of the orders of St. Alexander Newsky, of St. Vladimir of the Second Class; and commander of the sovereign order of St. John of Jerusalem; who, in virtue of their respective full powers, have agreed upon the following articles:

Art. I.—In case of unfounded detention or other contravention of the established regulations, the owners of the vessel and cargo so detained shall be allowed compensation for each day's demurrage, proportionate to the loss they shall have sustained, according to the freight of the said ship, and the nature of its cargo.

Art. II.—If the ministers of one of the high contracting parties, or any other persons accredited by the same to the belligerent power, should remonstrate against the sentence which shall have been passed by the respective courts of admiralty upon the said captures, appeal shall be made in Russia, to the directing senate, and in Great Britain, to his Majesty's privy council.

Art. III.—Care shall be taken, on both sides, scrupulously to examine whether the regulations and precautions agreed upon in the present convention have been observed, which shall be done with all possible dispatch. The two high contracting parties moreover mutually engage to adopt the most efficacious measures, in order to prevent the sentences of their several tribunals respecting captures made at sea being subject to any unnecessary delay.

Art. IV.—The goods in litigation cannot be sold or unloaded before final judgment, without an urgent and real necessity, which shall have been proved before the Court of Admiralty, and by virtue of a commission to this effect; and the captors shall by no means be permitted to remove or take away, on their own authority, either openly or clandestinely, any thing from a vessel so detained.

These additional articles, making part of the convention signed the 17—5th June, 1801, in the names of their Britannic and Imperial majesties, shall have the same force and validity as if they were inserted word for word in the said convention.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned, furnished with the full powers of their

said majesties, have signed, in their names, the present additional articles, and have affixed the seal of our arms thereto.

Done at Moscow, the 20—8th October, 1801.

(L. S.) *St. Helens.*

(L. S.) *Le Prince de Kourakin.*

(L. S.) *Le Comte de Kotschoubey.*

Declaration explanatory of the Second Section of the Third Article of the Convention, concluded at Petersburg, the 17—5th June, 1801, between His Majesty and the Emperor of Russia, signed at Moscow, the 20—8th October, 1801.

In order to prevent any doubt or misunderstanding with regard to the contents of the Second Section of the Third Article of the Convention concluded the 5—17th June, 1801, between his Britannic Majesty and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, the said high contracting parties have agreed and declare, that the freedom of commerce and navigation granted by the said article to the subjects of a neutral power, does not authorise them to carry, in time of war, the produce and merchandise of the colonies of the belligerent power direct to the continental possessions, nor *vice versa*, from the mother country to the enemies colonies; but that the said subjects are however to enjoy the same advantages and facilities in this commerce as are enjoyed by the most favoured nations, and especially by the United States of America.

In witness whereof, we, plenipotentiaries of their said majesties, have signed the present declaration, and have affixed the seals of our arms thereto.

At Moscow, the 8—20th October, 1801.

(L. S.) *St. Helens.*

(L. S.) *Le Prince de Kourakin.*

(L. S.) *Le Comte de Kotschoubey.*

Act of Accession of his Majesty the King of Denmark and Norway to the Convention of the 17—5th June, 1801, and Acceptance of his Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the Name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.

HIS majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, having, in pursuance of their mutual desire to terminate, in the most equitable manner, the differences which had arisen between them, as well as between Great Britain and the other maritime powers of the north, respecting the navigation of their respective subjects, concluded a convention, signed by their plenipotentiaries at St. Petersburg, the 17—5th of June of the present year: and their common solicitude extending itself not only to prevent similar altercations in future, and the troubles which might result therefrom, by establishing and applying the principles and rights of neutrality in their respective monarchies, but also, to render this system common and equally advantageous to the maritime powers of the north; it was stipulated by the ninth article of the said convention, that his Danish majesty should be invited by his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, in the name of the high contracting parties, to accede to the said convention; and his majesty the King of Denmark and Norway, animated with the same sentiments of conciliation and peace, and desirous of removing every thing which has interrupted or might hereafter interrupt the good understanding between their Britannic and Danish Majesties, and to re-establish fully on its former footing the ancient harmony and state of things, such as they existed by his Danish Majesty's treaties and conventions with Great Britain, his said majesty has not hesitated to listen to the invitation made to him to accede to the said convention, signed at St. Petersburg, the 17—5th June last.

To effect this salutary purpose, and to give to this act of accession, and to the acceptance of his Britannic majesty, every possible authenticity, and every accustomed solemnity, their said majesties have named for their plenipotentiaries, viz.—His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne Lord

Baron St. Helens, a peer of the said united kingdom, one of his said majesty's most honourable privy council, and his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and his majesty the King of Denmark and Norway, the Sieur Francis Xavier Joseph, Count de Dannekiold Lowendal, Count of the Holy Roman Empire, knight of the order of St. John of Jerusalem, major general in the service of his Danish majesty, commander of his marine forces, and his envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; who, after having reciprocally exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have concluded and agreed, that all the articles of the convention concluded between his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, the 5th—17th of June of the present year, as well as the separate articles annexed thereto, and the additional ones concluded the 20—8th October, 1801, by the plenipotentiaries of their said majesties, in all the clauses, conditions, and obligations, are to be considered as having been agreed upon, done and concluded, word for word, by their Britannic and Danish Majesties themselves, in quality of principal contracting parties, save and except the differences which result from the nature of the treaties and engagements antecedently subsisting between England and Denmark, of which the continuance and renewal are secured by the aforesaid convention; and with the express stipulation on the part of the high contracting and acceding parties, that the stipulation of the second article of the additional articles, signed at Moscow, the 20—8th October, 1801, by the plenipotentiaries of their Britannic and Imperial Majesties, which fixes that the adjudication of causes in litigation shall, in the last resort, be carried by appeal, in Russia, before the directing senate, and in Great Britain before his majesty's privy council, is to be understood, as with regard to Denmark, that the said adjudications shall be there carried by appeal before the supreme tribunal of that kingdom.

In order to prevent any inaccuracy, it has been agreed that the said convention, signed the 17—5th June, the separate articles annexed thereto, and the additional ones concluded the 20—8th October, 1801, should be inserted here, word for word.

(Fiat Inscriptio.)

In consequence of all which, his majesty the King of Denmark accedes, by virtue of the present act, to the said convention, and to the said separate and additional articles, such as they are herein before transcribed, without any exception or reserve, declaring and promising to fulfil all the clauses, conditions, and obligations thereof, as far as regards himself; and his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, accepts the present accession of his Danish Majesty, and in like manner promises, on his part, to fulfil all the articles, clauses, and conditions contained in the said convention, and the separate and additional articles herein-before inserted, without any exception or reserve.

The ratifications of the present act of accession and acceptance shall be exchanged in the space of two months, or sooner if possible; and the stipulations of the said convention shall, at the same time, be carried into execution as speedily as possible, regard being had to the full and entire re-establishment of the state of things, such as it was before the period of the misunderstandings, which are now so happily terminated.

In witness whereof, we, the undersigned, by virtue of our full powers, have signed the present act, and have thereunto affixed the seal of our arms.

Done at Moscow, the 23—11th October, 1801.

(L. S.) St. Helens. (L. S.) F. X. J. Cte. Dannekiold Lowendal.

Act of Accession of His Majesty the King of Sweden, to the Convention of the 17—5th June, 1801, and Acceptance of His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

In the Name of the Most Holy and Undivided Trinity.

His majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, and his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, having terminated, by a convention con-

cluded at St. Petersburg, the 17—5th June, 1801, the differences which had arisen between them respecting the rights of neutral navigation, in time of war, and his majesty the King of Sweden, equally induced by the desire of removing and conciliating the dissensions which existed on the same subject between his Britannic Majesty and himself, having consented, in consequence of the invitation that has been made to him, to accede to the above-mentioned convention; their said majesties have chosen and named as their plenipotentiaries to this effect, *viz.*—his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyne Lord Baron St. Helens, peer of the said United Kingdom, one of his majesty's most honourable privy council, and his ambassador extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to his majesty the Emperor of all the Russias; and his majesty the King of Sweden, the Sieur Baron Louis Bogislas Christopher Court de Stedingk, one of the Lords of the Kingdom of Sweden, his ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary to his imperial Majesty of all the Russias, lieutenant-general of his armies, chamberlain, knight and commander of his orders, knight of the Russian order of St. Andrew, knight grand cross of his order of the Sword, knight of those of Russia, of St. Alexander Newsky, and of St. Anne of the first class, and knight of the French order of Military Merit; who, after having exchanged their full powers, found to be in good and due form, have concluded and agreed upon what follows:

Art. I.—His majesty the King of Sweden accedes, by the present transaction with his majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, to the convention which was concluded between his said Majesty, and the Emperor of all the Russias, the 17—5th June, 1801, as well as to the first separate article annexed thereto, and to the additional ones concluded on the 20—8th October, 1801, promising and engaging to observe and fulfil all the stipulations, clauses, and articles therein contained, in the same manner as if his majesty had been a principal contracting party thereto, save and except the differences which result from the tenor of the treaties and engagements existing between England and Sweden, and which are to be renewed and confirmed in virtue of the aforesaid convention.

Art. II.—His majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, acknowledges, on his side, his majesty the King of Sweden as a contracting party in the convention concluded at St. Petersburg, the 17—5th June, 1801, and binds himself in the most formal manner, to observe, execute, and fulfil, to their utmost extent, in whatever regards his said majesty, the stipulations, clauses, and articles of the said convention, and of the said first separate article, and of the additional ones, save and except the differences which result from the tenor of the treaties and engagements existing between England and Sweden, and which are to be renewed and confirmed in virtue of the aforesaid convention.

Art. III.—It is agreed that the adjudication, in the last resort of causes in litigation, which according to the second article of the aforesaid additional articles, are to be brought by appeal before his majesty's privy council in Great Britain, and before the directing senate in Russia, shall, in Sweden, be brought by appeal before the supreme tribunal, in Swedish *Högsta Domstolen*.

Art. IV.—In order to prevent any inaccuracy, it has been agreed that the said convention, as well as the said separate and additional articles, should be inserted here, word for word, and as follows:—

(*Fiat Insertio.*)

The present act of accession shall be ratified in good and due form, and the ratifications exchanged at London in the space of two months, or sooner if possible, from the day of its signature.

In faith of which, we the undersigned, in virtue of our full powers, have signed the present act, and have thereunto affixed the seal of our arms.

Done at Petersburg, the 30—18th March, 1802.

(*L. S.*) *St. Helens.* (*L. S.*) *Court Stedingk.*

These conventions nearly go to settle the point in dispute with regard to the contraband of war ; a question which, at the bottom, has nothing so materially important as the nations concerned seem to think. It appears that the armed neutrality was, in fact, rather brought about by the particular views of the Russian government, than by the mutual interest of the high contracting parties. Denmark and Sweden evidently followed the impulse of Russia ; and to them, whatever grievance might exist, it was, at least, not a new one, and had never before been considered in that light. We have seen that, in the days of Queen Elizabeth, a fleet of sixty sail of Hanseatic ships was taken and destroyed, because they were carrying stores to Spain, at that time preparing, with the great armada, to invade England. Yet, so natural was this thought to be, that the Hanseatics, though extremely insolent, in a remonstrance relative to their privileges in England, a few years after, did not complain about the burning of their ships when they were carrying aid to an enemy.

The law of nature and of nations, though generally but very imperfectly obeyed, undoubtedly rendered the burning of the Hanseatic ships a matter of right ; for, on such a service, they could only be considered as the ships of an enemy ; it is not the ownership, but the service upon which they are, that determines this point ; and, therefore, the ships of an ally, assisting an enemy, are to be considered as enemies. In 1652, the Danes, who were not at war with England, but excited by the Dutch, stopped in the Sound, a fleet of more than twenty English ships, laden with pitch, tar, flax, hemp, and other naval stores.

The armed neutrality, then, ought to be considered chiefly as the act of Russia ; though Sweden and Denmark acquiesced in it twice : it ought also to be considered as a departure from a very ancient practice, founded on the rights of nations and the nature of things.

It is well known, that laws are made to regulate interests and prevent transactions that are improper in themselves, and that would be advantageous to some, and hurtful to others. Those who find the operation of law injurious to their interest wish to set it aside ; and those who find its operation favourable wish it to be obeyed ; and as, amongst nations, the power is too apt to regulate the will, Russia, with her increased strength, felt disposed to produce an alteration more favourable to her own interests ; and Sweden and Denmark, acting from similar motives, were ready to join their efforts for the same purpose.

Why, it may be asked, did Denmark and Sweden remain quiet during six years of the last war, and became dissatisfied the moment that Russia was so? Why did they turn against England in the midst of a struggle, on her part, to defend the interests of civilized society? It is clear they had neither calculated the consequences, nor looked back to the history of former times; and, if they are now treated with indifference by the French, it is a little more than what might be expected. The aggrandizement of France could be no matter of consideration to them, else they would not, during a contest to prevent it, have joined their efforts in aid of France. As to the conduct of Russia on that last occasion, the state of the unfortunate, though well-intentioned monarch who then ruled, precludes the necessity of inquiring into it. But Sweden and Denmark were not in a similar situation. If they acted from fear, and in consequence of threats, they were wrong: they should rather have asserted their independence, to prevent the operation of such undue influence. Russia, alone, would neither then have had a pretext nor the means of annoyance in such a cause, great as its power is.

In order that we may be able to judge from facts, whether the nations of the north had any occasion to complain of England hurting and interrupting their trade, let us look at the amount of imports; comparing two years of last war with two years during the peace, and we shall see that the increase, comparing 1784 and 1785, with 1801 and 1802 is nearly thus:

Imports from Russia have increased from 450,000*l.* to 2,230,000*l.* that is, they are four times greater than they were; those of Denmark have nearly doubled, and those of Sweden have done the same; and if those two latter powers have not increased still more, it is owing to themselves: we cannot purchase what they have not got to sell; and, if they do not increase their produce more rapidly, their commerce must feel the effects.

It may be hoped, that a convention being entered into, and the improbability of Russia ever being so unfortunately guided as she was in 1800, will prevent any future discussions on this subject, which, as we have seen, originated rather in private motives than in justice; still, however, as there is a possibility that what has happened may happen again, it may not be improper to inquire into the consequences of such hostilities.

The chief trade of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, is with England; that would, in the first place, be interrupted; and England, during that interruption, would find it necessary

either to raise at home, or procure from America, the articles now obtained from those nations. This, we shall see, is perfectly practicable, and the trade never would return to its present state. The northern nations would then be great losers, independent of the expenses of the war, which, at all events, would be considerable; and the object for which they fought would be destroyed, whether they succeeded or failed. Let us suppose, for a moment, that England was compelled to yield, where would then be the commerce of Russia? Is it not the naval power and greatness of England that occasions the chief consumption of naval stores in every country? Would the materials for a few frigates, such as are maintained by the states of America, support the commerce of the northern nations? and if England were destroyed, where would be the necessity for any thing more?

If, on the contrary, England conquered, the destruction of the rising navy of Russia would be certain; Denmark and Sweden would sustain a loss that twenty years of commerce would not repair, particularly of such mutilated commerce as they would then enjoy.

At the same time that these are matters of very serious consideration for the northern powers, the British government should consider that its great commerce and naval power do certainly excite envy, and tend to the humiliation of other nations; and, therefore, every harsh or vexatious proceeding should be studiously avoided on her part. It is only by such conduct, and a fair understanding of the case, and a calculation of the consequences, that we can expect to avoid discontents at some future period; for, as the convention grants to the northern powers more than we wished to give, though something less than they wished to have, it is in vain for us to deceive ourselves in thinking that either party is fully satisfied.

We shall see, in the course of this work, that Britain has resources within herself, that may enable her to become independent of the northern nations for their produce; and that, therefore, the consequences hinted at, in case of further efforts on their part to injure England, are not only natural, but will be necessary and inevitable, and make Great Britain, by compulsion, bring into activity those resources, which her policy ought long ago to have rendered productive.

The French revolution has created political changes and connections, which have greatly altered commerce; their effects we already feel beneficially on the one hand, with some inconvenience on the other; but the consequences are hardly yet to be

foreseen. It is not improbable but the commerce of the north of Europe will undergo as great a change as we have seen that transitory guest undergo in any other quarter in former times. The great attention paid by the Russian government to promote the trade of the Black sea is only equal to the efforts of Peter the Great, for establishing that in the Baltic, by removing it from Archangel in the White sea, to Petersburg.

The Austrian Netherlands, which used to be the barrier of Holland against the power and incursion of France, no longer exist; and as that barrier may probably never be reinstated, Holland can never resume her former commerce, confidence, security, and freedom; the vitals of it are destroyed by the alliance of her new neighbour, whose maxims and principles are unfavourable to the growth of so delicate and tender a plant as commerce.

Whilst Holland remains subject to the control of France, its commerce will always be interrupted by the misunderstandings of the latter with any other power; and the navigation of that fine river, the Rhine, will be lost to the general purposes of mercantile conveyance, to which the Dutch devoted it, as it will always be at the command of France.

The next considerable river that has an extensive interior communication, is the Elbe, which can supply the loss of the Rhine in some measure; but we have seen that France, having Holland as an ally, the barrier, even to the Elbe, is lost; and so long as Hanover remains connected with Great Britain, and Holland holds its present situation, the commerce, which might be carried on by the mouth of the Elbe, will always be liable to interruption, in any misunderstanding betwixt Great Britain and France.

Unless the security of Hanover is by some means accomplished against the encroachments of France, the trade of the Elbe will always be conducted on a very precarious footing; and, as this event is at present uncertain, it will be useful to the commercial interests of Great Britain to point out other channels by which they may securely carry on her trade at present, and likewise in future, whenever a similar obstruction shall occur.

The French, violating the guarantee of the German empire, by occupying Hanover, naturally drove Great Britain to the necessity of blockading the rivers Elbe and Weser: at the first, commerce experienced a momentary check only; new channels, never thought of before, were then resorted to, attended, however, with inconvenience. Tonningen became the port of

Hamburg, as well as did different ports in Holstein; the details of which will be given in a future chapter, when treating of the trade of the rivers Elbe, Weser, and Ems.

As the ports of the two former rivers have at present no direct external mercantile intercourse, and that of the latter will ever be liable to interruption from the frequent regulations made in Holland, through the influence of France, it becomes necessary to point out the first secure channel that British shipping can approach with facility and advantage; and which has the most easy and extensive interior communication, free from the influence or interruption of France.

In treating of the trade of Stettin, a very extensive avenue will be found into the interior of Germany, not only by the river Oder, but by different canals communicating with the Elbe, by which channels, great part of the interior commerce of Prussia and Germany was carried on through Hamburg, previous to the blockade of that river, which will shortly communicate even with the Danube.

From Dantzic we shall see the trade to Austria and all the intermediate country, as well as from Konigsburg and Riga for all the south east trade, through those fine regions, quite down to the Black sea, Turkey, and even Asia. Under the respective heads will be found particular details for the information of every one.

What will serve to shorten the voyage, and lessen the risk in carrying on the continental trade, by means of the Baltic and the channels described, is the canal of Rendsburg, through Holstein; it will save the circuitous, dangerous, and tedious voyage round the Skaw and the Cattegat, by having proper vessels adapted to pass through, as the Dutch and French now have.

When these channels, and the facilities by the way of the Oder to the Elbe, and the numerous branches of interior communication to the western and southern boundaries of the German empire, come to be more generally known, the difficulties will not be found so insurmountable, nor the interruption so great as the French were inclined to believe. In one point they may be mistaken, for, by diverting trade into other channels, though rather more inconvenient, it will be amply compensated for, by possessing greater security; so that Great Britain may long enough maintain the contest, while she will never again have occasion to dread the inconvenience, which France has now occasioned.

To sum up the whole, the means of carrying on trade with the interior of the continent will be clearly pointed out, in any event less unfortunate than that of the conquest of Denmark and Prussia, by that same power, which has already ruined the Austrian Netherlands, and the Seven United Provinces.

CHAPTER II.

OF THE RUSSIAN EMPIRE IN GENERAL.

Its Extent, Seas, Lakes, Rivers, Canals, and interior Communication. Its Produce, Iron, Wood, Hemp and Flax, Linens, Tallow, Grain, &c.

THE immense extent of country in Europe and Asia, now comprehended under the general name of the Russian empire, has only emerged from barbarism within these two centuries. Except in incursions and wars of depredation, the more ignorant portion of society has always been inferior in power to that which is the more enlightened.

Since the modern methods of making war, this distinction, given by civilization and wealth, has become infinitely greater than ever, and completed the superiority.

When Russia is more improved and better cultivated, as it no doubt soon will be, the exports and imports from other nations will greatly increase; besides, the navigation of the Black sea, in a central situation, and surrounded by the finest and most fertile country in the world, if it was inhabited by a more wealthy and civilized race of men, would greatly tend to the increase of trade.

Amongst other things that take place, as civilization is introduced, population increases with the means of existence. Countries that enjoy a fertile soil and fine climate attain ordinarily from one hundred and fifty, to two hundred inhabitants for every English square mile; but if Russia were only to attain to one-third of the lowest degree, (or fifty), which is not quite equal to Poland, the population would then amount to one hundred and twenty-five millions, which would afford a degree of commerce, and be attended with an increase of power

that must greatly change both the mercantile and political interests of Europe.

Within these two last centuries, this change began, and, during the reign of Peter the Great, one hundred years ago, its progress was accelerated. It ceased to increase so fast after the death of that monarch, till within these fifty years, under the late Empress; since which time, it has advanced in power and importance with great rapidity.

As all over Europe the progress of advancement has been greatly accelerated, during the last thirty years of the eighteenth century, Russia has partaken of the general movement; but owing to its immense size, and its being far behind the others, it has changed still more rapidly than any other; for in 1762, when the Empress Catharine mounted the throne, it was a second rate power; it is now not only in the first rank by land, but might soon be a second rate power at sea, if it knew its own resources.

The great means with which nature has furnished Russia, together with the example of other nations that are in a more advanced state, added to the facility with which arts, inventions and improvements in general, are now disseminated, give its monarchs an ambition to make it that great empire for which it seemed by nature intended. The plans traced out by Peter the Great, lead naturally to the same end; so that, perhaps, there never was any country which, owing to a vast concurrence of circumstances, had so great an energy, both physical and moral, as we find combined in the Russian empire.

The revenues are at present but small, in comparison to the population,* and according to the extent still less; but they are increasing and the value of money is greater there than in most other countries, so that, merely by a numerical comparison, the proportion is not fairly ascertained. The revenues of Russia, if estimated at ten millions sterling, will, in that country, go as far in military services and the main expenses of government as thirty millions would in England.

It was so late as the reign of Edward VI. that the commerce of Russia had its rise, when the celebrated Sebastian Cabot, who had already discovered Newfoundland, in the year 1553,

* From the 18th of February, 1803, to the 18th of February, 1804, there were married in the empire, 302,467 couples. Died 791,979 persons. Born 1,279,321, which last number, multiplied by 30, gives 38,379,630, for the population of Russia. In such accounts as these, nothing can be exaggerated, but much may have been forgotten, and something must have been omitted; so that 40,000,000 will be a fair estimate of people in that great empire.

fitted out three ships to discover a north-east passage to India and China: the command was given to Sir Hugh Willoughby, who unfortunately put into one of the harbours of Lapland with two of the ships, which were frozen in, and every soul perished. The command was afterwards given to Richard Chancellor, who was master of the other ship, and who had returned to England, after having landed at a monastery near the Dwina. Soon after this, Ivan Vassilievitch caused a harbour to be made, called Archangel Michael; but, even in the year 1586, it had scarcely become a town.

In consequence of the address of Chancellor, and the inclination of Ivan Vassilievitch, a direct trade was opened, by this channel, betwixt Russia and England, which Queen Elizabeth encouraged soon after her accession to the throne. In the year 1554, a charter was granted to a body of merchants, who entered into a joint stock company, which was confirmed by an act of Parliament in 1566, with additional privileges granted to it, and continued for a considerable time. At length it was dissolved as a joint stock company, but continued (as it still is) a regulated company, having a factory, at Archangel first, but now at Petersburg. It was to the efforts of this company that we are indebted for that branch of trade in the early period we have already described; and to it the East India company may be said to have owed also its rise.

By a statute of the 10th and 11th of William and Mary, it was enacted that the freedom or fellowship of the Russia company should be less difficult, and that, from Lady-day 1699, every subject desiring admittance into that fellowship, should pay 5*l.* for the same, which still remains the case; each member paying, in addition, one guinea to the poor-box, 5*s.* to the secretary, and 2*s.* 6*d.* to the beadle of the company, besides stamps; each member pays a small rate, fixed by the company, on all goods imported into England only, from Archangel, Onega, Petersburg, and Narva. Hitherto Scotland and Ireland have been excepted, (though equally liable, since their respective union with England), as well as the produce from all other ports in the Russian empire.

Excepting a little trade to Narva, the whole commerce of Russia was carried on by way of Archangel, till Peter the Great aid the foundation of St. Petersburg, which it is known has since become the grand mart of the empire, the greatest share of its commerce now passing through that city.

It was the first intention to have given more minute details relative to the Russia company, but the materials were found

too voluminous for the general plan of the work, it is therefore confined to simple commercial detail in as compact a form as possible.

In treating of the commerce of Russia, we shall divide it under the following heads :—1st. That of the White sea.—2d. Of the Baltic sea.—3d. Of the Black sea :—followed with general remarks, and a view of the whole : but there ought first to be given some outlines of the extent of the empire.

Russia contains near the seventh part of the continent, and almost a twenty-sixth part of the whole globe. The extent from west to east, viz. from $39\frac{1}{4}$ to $207\frac{1}{4}$ degrees of longitude, contains 168 degrees ; and if the islands of the Eastern ocean be included, it will then contain 185.

This great empire is divided into three divisions ; from the 57th degree towards the north pole forms the northern division ; between the 57th and the 50th degree of latitude forms the middle division ; and the southern division begins at the 50th degree of latitude, and extends to the southern boundary of the Russian dominions.

The northern division abounds with all sorts of fish, some cattle, wild animals, and some of the metals, and much wood, though the latter diminishes in size, as it approaches the north.

The middle division is not only preferable, from its being a more temperate climate, but because it furnishes the greatest part of the produce for the export of Russia, as well as for its manufactures. In this division grow the hemp and flax, as well as different sorts of grain ; the cattle are here generally fatter ; tallow, hides, and glue, are produced here in greater quantities than in the northern parts : iron, copper, silver, and gold, and by far the finest fir timber come from hence.

The south division is more productive in cattle than the middle division, but not equally so in other articles, though from its climate it may be made to produce fruits, wines, and most of the luxuries of life.

European Russia is bounded on the east by Astracan, Kasan, and Siberia ; on the north by the Arctic sea ; on the west by Sweden, the Baltic sea, and Prussia, and Turkey in Europe ; on the south, by the Black sea, and part of Persia.

Asiatic Russia is bounded on the north by the Arctic sea ; on the west by Europe ; on the south by part of Persia, Free Tartary, and China ; and on the east by the North Pacific Ocean, which divides it from North America.

The external communications of Russia, by water, are by the White, the Baltic, and the Black sea, and the Pacific Ocean.

The Caspian sea, the great lakes of Ladoga, Onega, Peipus, Ilmen, and Baikal, give rise to and facilitate the great *internal* commerce.

The principal rivers of Russia in Europe, which fall into those seas, or are connected with these lakes, either naturally, or by canals, shall be briefly stated, to shew the great interior communications, tending also to facilitate the *external* commerce.

Rivers which fall into the North or White sea.

The principal river that falls into the North or White sea is the Dwina, which receives this name on being joined by the Yuga and Sukhona, both which take their rise in the government of Wologda. The Yuga becomes navigable at the Pristan of Nekolsk; in spring, barks laden with corn, go down it into the Dwina; but, in summer, this river is only navigable for boats. The Sukhona takes its rise from the lake of Kubenski, in the government of Wologda. On the Dwina stands Archangel, by which the ancient commerce of Russia was carried on, and it is now, the same as for centuries back,—the principal river for the inland and foreign trade from the White sea.

The Onega takes its rise on the north side of the lake Beloji, which falls into the lake of Boshe. On passing through this lake, the Onega bears the name of Wid or Swid; and then only receives the name of Onega, on having passed through the lake Latche.

Rivers which fall into the Baltic sea.

The Kymmene, only remarkable as a frontier river, divides Russia and Sweden, and falls into the Gulph of Finland, near Frederickstadt: taking its rise in Finland; the navigation of it is very tedious, though short.

The Neva runs out of the Ladoga lake, and falls into the Gulph of Finland, below Petersburgh, and is of the greatest consequence to Russia, both for the inland and foreign trade. The waters that run from the mountains of Finland and Waidai, gather into the Onega and Ilmen lakes; these lakes discharge themselves into the Ladoga lake; which last has no other discharge than the Neva, which divides itself into several branches at its mouth, running through the city of Petersburgh.

The Narova falls into the Gulph of Finland, about nine miles

below the city of Narva, deriving its source from the Peipus lake.

The Pernau, which falls into the bay of Riga, by the town of Pernau, takes in its course the rivulets of Fellin and Fennern; and only becomes navigable thirty-five versts from its source.

The Diina, which has its source in the government of Twer, not far from that of the Wolga and Dnieper, falls into the bay of Riga, by the city of that name. This very useful river takes its rise in the neighbourhood of the lake Seliger, in a bog, and is increased by many other rivers falling into it; namely, the Toropa, so called from the town of Toropetz; the Mjeha, the Kasplja, the Lutchossa, the Ulla, which rises out of the lake Beloje; the Drissa is only navigable when the waters are high, like the Ewst and the Oger. There are some water-falls in the Diina; one produced by a chalk-cliff, not far above Riga, goes straight across the river; the navigation of it is the most dangerous when the water is low.

Rivers which fall into the Black sea.

The Dnieper takes its rise in the government of Smolenski, not far from whence the Wolga and Diina have their source, and passes south through the governments of Smolenski, White and Little Russia, Kieff, the Slobodian Ukraine, and New Russia,—a length of fifteen hundred versts, and at Otchakoff falls into the Black sea. The Dnieper receives many rivers, which communicate with those falling into the Baltic. On this river, within the distance of sixty versts, there were thirteen cataracts, or obstructions, in the centre of it; but those are now removing, and three have actually been removed. Above twelve governments have a communication, by water, with this river. On the left, the Dnieper receives the rivers Sosha, Desna, Soola, Psiol, Worskla, Orel, Samara, and others, which pass through the governments of Little Russia, Koursk, and the Slobodian Ukraine; on the west side the Beresina and the Pripecz; two considerable rivers which communicate with the governments of Minsk, Lithuania, and Volhinia, and promote the communication with governments laying east and south; connecting them with the Vistula, which runs down to Dantzic, the Njemen down to Memel, and the Diina to Riga; or, in a word, the Baltic and Black seas, by three different branches.

The Boug flows through the governments of Podolia, and

New Russia, and falls into the Dnieper, a little above Otchakoff.

The Dniester takes its rise beyond the Russian dominions, and serves as a frontier to the governments of Podolia, Volhynia, and New Russia, against Turkish Bessarabia and Moldavia, and falls into the Black sea, south of Ovidipol.

Rivers which fall into the sea of Azoph.

The Don is the only great navigable river that falls into the sea of Azoph. It takes its rise in the government of Tula, and on the borders of Rjasan, passes the government of Tula, Rjasan, Tamboff, Woronesh, and the country inhabited by the Don Cosacs, and falls into the sea of Azoph, after a course of about 750 miles.

Rivers which fall into the Caspian Sea.

The Wolga is not only the noblest river in Russia, but in Europe; it facilitates the great commerce of the empire, being navigable from nearly its source, in the government of Twer, near the Düna and the Dnieper, quite into the Caspian sea, taking, in its course, the following rivers: the Selisharowka, Wasusa, Twerza, Mologa, Sheksna, Rotorost, Koesstroma, Ounsha, Oka, Seura, Wetluga, Kama, Samara, Kamüshenka, Achtuba, Ural, Terek, and Kur.

CANALS AND INTERIOR NAVIGATION.

Junction of the North and Caspian seas.

The first, will unite the rivers Dwina and the Wolga, by the Kubenski canal, in the government of Wologda, and the river Wätschegda, which falls into the Dwina; this is carrying into execution.

The second is through the North canal, by the rivers Waga and Jamza, the Onega, Woloksa, Ken, and Mosha, likewise uniting the Dwina and the Wolga.

Junction of the Baltic with the Caspian sea.

The first canal unites the Neva with the Wolga, by the lake Ilmen and the canal of Vishney Volotshok; this celebrated canal connects the Caspian and Baltic seas, in a navigation of 1434 miles: the vessels laden at Astracan ascend the Wolga to Twer, and thence up the Twerza, when they arrive at the canal

through which they pass, and then descend the Msta to Novgorod, thence down the Volkhof to the Ladoga canal, and at Schlüsselburg enter the Neva, so down to St. Petersburg, without ever unloading their cargoes.

The second unites the Neva with the Wolga, by the Ladoga canal, and by the canals of Tichwin and Sjas: the Tichwin canal is to join the Sominka with the Lid; this river falls in the Tschagadosh, thence into the Mologa, which runs into the Wolga. Annually, above 260 vessels pass up the Tschagadosh. The Swir canal is a continuation of that of the Ladoga, which unites the Volkhof with the Sjas river, in the same way as the Ladoga canal unites the Neva with the Volkhof. This canal was completed in 1801, during which year 651 barks of different sizes passed through it.

The third unites the Neva with the Wolga, by the lake Onega and Maria canal, which unites the rivers Wytegra and Kowshaga. This canal was finished in 1801; from 130 to 160 galliots and smaller vessels pass annually through the Wytegra to St. Petersburg. The Onega canal is to join the Wytegra with the river Swir: this canal is carrying into execution. The Swir canal will join the river Swir and Sjas: and is to be finished in the year 1806.

Junction of the Baltic with the Black sea.

First, The Beresinski canal will unite the Düna with the Dnieper, consequently the bay of Riga, with the Black sea; this junction is formed by means of the river Ulla, which falls into the Düna, and the Sergatcha, which falls into the Beresina, which last falls into the Dnieper. The Beloje and Beresina lakes, lying betwixt, greatly facilitate the junction: one part is already finished, being six miles in length, with four sluices. This short distance has been found useful for the conveyance of goods to Riga already. About 300 large barks pass down the Düna annually; also considerable quantities of wood and masts float down that river; about 20 large barks, with salt, pass annually out of the Dneiper into the Beresina. The Beresinski canal, when completed, will very much facilitate the conveyance of goods to and from the Baltic and the Black sea, betwixt the Dneiper, and Düna, and promote an easy and expeditious conveyance in the interior; this canal was begun in the year 1797; the principal part was finished in 1801, and the remainder will be completed this year, forming a complete line of navigation betwixt Riga and the Black sea, and promote general traffic in the heart of the country.

The second, by uniting the Njemen with the Dnieper, by the Oginsky canal, and of the Njemen with the Courland canal. Count Oginsky, during the last years of the Polish republic, completed this canal at his own expense: it joins the rivers Szczara and Jasiolda, the first falls into the Njemen, and the latter into the Pripecz, which runs into the Dnieper, by which it opens a communication with the Baltic and Black seas; it was finally repaired in 1803: its length is 34 miles, and it has ten sluices. Vessels have long ago passed through it betwixt Königsberg and the Black sea. The governments of Lithuania and Volhinia send their produce by the river Njemen, also the provinces of Little Russia and Polish Ukraine now send their products by this communication to Memel and Königsberg. The Njemen falls into the Baltic, near Memel. A plan has been projected to unite this river with the bay of Riga, by a canal of ten versts in length; it would unite the Nevesha with the Lavenna, at the mouth of the great Aa, the river is deep enough even for vessels built for sea. Above Mittau it is navigable for small craft. This intended canal is not yet begun.

The third, by uniting the Western Bug with the Dnieper by the King's canal. This canal was begun by order of the last King of Poland, and is completed. The rivers Pinna and Muchawetz have been made navigable near to their source; but the canal itself which unites them is badly constructed, and is carried through low and morassy places, in hopes that, without having sluices, there would be water enough; but, at the same time, care was not taken to level the ground in places through which the water was to flow, for which reason this canal is short of water in the summer months, and is only navigable in the spring, when the water is high, being frozen in winter. The Western Bug carries barks of a middling size, on which the inhabitats of Podolia and East Galicia carry their produce, by the Vistula, to Dantzic.

CANALS PARTLY EXECUTING, AND PROJECTED TO FORM THE FOLLOWING JUNCTIONS.

Of the Baltic with the North sea.—The Dwina is to be united with the Sheksna by means of the Kubenski canal; the Sheksna, since the completion of the Maria Canal, has a communication with the river Neva. By means of these rivers,

and the projected Kubenski canal, a communication will be opened between Petersburg and Archangel.

Of the bay of Riga with the bay of Finland.—First, by uniting the rivers Pernau and Narova, by means of the lake Peipus and the canal of Fellin, which will open a communication with the port of Pernau.

Second, by uniting the rivers Düna and Neva, by means of the lake Ilmen and the Welikoluki canal; when this projected canal is carried into execution, vessels may pass from the Dnieper through the Beresinski canal, into the Düna, down to Riga, or through the Welikoluki canal, into the river Lowat, the lake Ilmen, and so to Petersburg.

Third, by uniting the Düna and Narova with the Peipus lake, and the Verroi and Riga canals. The Verroi canal would serve to unite the lake Waggola and the Black Rivulet, it would be but short, and require only one sluice to have a direct communication with the Aa and Düna. A second canal is to be cut from the Düna, below Riga, across a narrow point of land, close to the Jügel and Weissen lakes; the last of which comes so near the Aa that it could be united by a canal of two versts in length. In 1797, this canal was ordered to be carried into execution, but it is not yet completed.

Of the Baltic and Black seas.—First, by uniting the rivers Neva and Dnieper, with the Düna, by the Welikoluki canal, (this canal has not yet been begun) but it will require eighty-one English miles in length to be cut, and will fall into the lake Ushkaje, where the rivulet Ushka rises and discharges itself into the Düna. This projected plan is to be examined, and, if there is a probability of carrying it into execution, it is to be realized. This communication could also be carried on by the rivers Luga, Narova, the Peipus lake, and the river Pernau, which, at the town of that name, falls into the bay of Riga.

Of the Black and Caspian seas.—First, by uniting the Dnieper with the Wolga, by the canals of Orel; by uniting, 1st. the Bolwa with the river Shisdra; 2d. the Sna with the Zon; and, 3d. the Nerussa with the Kromii, by means of canals.—These projected communications are called the canals of Orel.

Second, by uniting the Don with the Wolga, by the Iwanoff canal. This canal was begun in 1700, by Peter the Great, to unite the Don by means of the lake Iwan with the river Shat, which passes through the Upa into the Oka. This work was already far advanced, the bed of the river Don was deepened, and the canal itself was carried from the Don into the valley of Bo-brucki, towards the lake Iwan, and had already twenty-four

sluices, when the undertaking was suddenly stopped ; but orders are now given to have this canal repaired and completed.

Third, by uniting the Don and the Wolga, by the Kamüshinski canal. Near the town of Kamüshin, in the government of Saratoff, these two rivers nearly approach each other, which distance is still lessened by the rivers Ilowla and Kamüshinski, of which the first falls into the Don, and the latter into the Wolga. This canal was began, in 1716, by order of Peter the Great, but was discontinued. In 1796, it was again examined, and orders given, if found practicable, to be carried into effect.

By means of the canals already finished, a great part of *European Russia* has a communication with one or other of the seas by which it is bounded ; and, as the rivers are numerous, and a general plan is followed, of constructing canals wherever they can be useful, in a very short time, its internal communications will be such as to furnish it with the means of transporting all its produce into other parts, by means of water carriage.

As we have described a few of the principal rivers and canals, either completed, in execution, or contemplation, of that part of the Russian empire in Europe, we shall give the communication from the frontiers of China, by which the trade from thence, and that of Siberia, is carried on to the city of Petersburg. This navigation first commences on the borders of China, passing by the Selenga to the Baikal lake, from thence, upon the Angara, into the Yenissey, as far down as Yenissey ; there the merchandise is unloaded and carried over a short tract of land, and embarked on the river Ket ; from thence down that river into the Oby : from which up the Irtish, the Tobol, and thence over land to the Tchussovaia, upon which river it is embarked again and falls into the Kama, and the Kama into the great river Wolga. By this conveyance it was estimated, that Russia drew, some years ago, merchandise to the value of no less than twelve millions of roubles, consisting in

Iron, valued at roubles, . . .	3,000,000
Salt	2,000,000
Gold and silver	1,700,000
Furs and skins	1,000,000
Copper money	1,500,000
Copper in pieces	500,000
Tallow and leather	500,000
Marble, precious stones, &c. . .	300,000
Chinese trade	1,500,000

It has since increased, particularly in the article of tallow; the exportation of which, from Petersburg, has been considerably augmented within the last two or three years.

The Wolga has already been described, together with its junction with the Neva, connecting the Baltic and Caspian seas, and also the route, to Siberia and China, all which are united by means of the canal of Vishney Volotshok, through which the principal part of the trade of the empire is conveyed.

The number of barges which passed through the canal, in 1776, amounted to 2,537; in 1777, to 2641; and the average number was generally computed at about 2550.

Some idea may be formed of the interior increasing traffic, carried on through this canal, by the following statement, for eleven years.

Years.	Vessels and Floats.				Lading.			Tolls or Duties.
	Barks.	Half Barks.	1 mast. vessels & boats	Floats.	Poods.	Cool.	Barrels.	Rubles.
1787	2,914	357	178	1,984	7,032,681	950,301	7,579 $\frac{1}{2}$	24,689
1788	2,846	317	264	2,719	5,631,264	1,106,866	14,066	24,674
1789	3,812	253	249	1,560	8,262,009	1,418,354	6,445	31,841
1790	2,927	339	166	1,390	6,735,264	1,065,705	14,537	25,155
1791	4,025	305	178	1,485	8,381,147	1,524,706	12,473	33,721
1792	2,553	456	168	1,107	5,709,356	1,127,853	12,182	23,238
1793	3,488	439	179	2,005	8,752,189	1,211,251	15,696	30,067
1794	2,945	402	167	1,964	8,394,933	1,016,736	12,958	25,988
1795	3,119	375	212	1,562	8,094,384	1,022,078	5,913	26,753
1796	2,983	260	218	1,665	7,314,360	1,110,869	8,887 $\frac{1}{2}$	25,743
1797	3,958	382	248	1,676	8,403,014	1,618,819	12,239 $\frac{1}{2}$	34,192
Total	35,591	3885	2227	19,117	82,712,599	13,182,538	122,976 $\frac{1}{2}$	306,066
Ann. aver.	3,235	353	202	1,738	7,519,327	1,198,412	11,179	27,824

It may next be asked, after perusing the above statement, what sort of vessels they are, which navigate all those canals and rivers, and convey so much valuable produce from the interior to the ports, for exportation?

Many of those vessels or barks, (as they are called), bring down from 100 to 400 tons each, and some few more, particularly to Archangel. These barks are perfectly flat bottomed, and many of a great length: the largest fir planks are selected for the purpose of building them; the timbers and crooks are generally selected from such trees as have roots of a proper

shape. The depth of one of these vessels is seldom more than four feet; some few more; the sides are perpendicular, and not much regard had to shape: they load them to draw from 20 to 30 inches of water, or more, according to the season of the year and to the water they expect to find in their respective navigations. Their rudder is a long tree, like an oar. In case of leakage, instead of a pump, they put up a rough cross bar, from which is slung, by means of a rope, a wooden scoop, with which they throw out the water. These vessels are rudely constructed, purposely for conveying only one cargo; they cost from 100 to 300 rubles each; and when they arrive at Archangel, Petersburg, or Riga, and their cargoes are discharged, they are sold or broken up for fire-wood or other purposes, seldom fetching more than from 20 to 50 rubles.

Although a great part of the products are brought down by water, while the navigation continues open, yet the great preparation for the following year's business is during the previous winter; and great quantities of goods are conveyed by sledge-ways, during this season, not only to Archangel, Petersburg, and Riga, but particularly to those parts which have not the advantage of interior water conveyance. Flax and hemp come to Narva, grain to Revel, flax and grain to Riga, particularly if the prices happen to be high at the time. The produce from all parts of the interior, which have not the advantage of water conveyance, is carried by sledge-ways to the nearest Pristan, or place where the barks are built, from whence they are floated down with the current, so soon as the snow and ice begin to melt; they are previously loaded, to be in readiness to take advantage of the water when it is high. The masts and heavy timber are conveyed out of the forests to the nearest navigable communication, during the winter, when it is that a great interior commerce prevails, particularly in the articles of importation by the last arrived ships, their cargoes being carried by the sledge-roads to the remotest parts of the empire. So general is this sort of communication, that, to and from Mosco, merchandise has been conveyed that distance frequently so low as 10 copecks per pood, the ordinary rate being from 20 to 35 copecks per pood, which is 15s. the lowest, the highest 45s. per ton, for a distance of between 4 and 500 miles; certainly considerably cheaper than freights by sea, for the same distance, without reckoning the insurance, and uncertain conveyance, while the other is certain and expeditious. The cheap rate of land carriage, and still more reasonable rate by water, though more tedious, is a favourable circumstance to forward the ex-

ternal commerce of this empire, as well as that amongst the interior provinces with each other, which is very considerable.

PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES.

It must naturally be supposed that a country of such vast extent, as Russia, must have nearly all the variety of soil that is to be found in the world, which, being under a variety of different climates, produce all the necessities and luxuries of life, and that both will increase as civilization and population extend.

The northern regions afford articles of traffic, as well as the southern and middle. The produce of Russia, for export, consists in iron, hemp, flax, cordage of all kinds, tallow, hides, fir and oak timber in planks and deals, battens, balks, spars, bowsprits and masts; pitch and tar, grain of all sorts, particularly wheat; hempen and flaxen linen manufactured for the use of the table, flems, ravenducks, and other sorts for general purposes, and sail-cloth of various sorts, bees-wax, honey, bristles, and tallow candles; isinglass, caviar, butter, soap, leather, train oil, hempseed, linseed, and their oils, and latterly tobacco from the Ukraine.

We shall, however, only treat of the principal articles of produce, and such manufactures as form the commerce of Great Britain and other maritime countries, by which Russia has reaped the advantage of exploring the bowels of the earth and drawing riches therefrom, as well as by the produce of the soil, yielding her an annual profit; making other nations tributary, as it were, in paying that price which her subjects demand. The policy of this measure is very questionable, though it has been aided by government in the establishment of a bank, which will be hereafter described. Of Iron, Wood, Hemp, Flax, Linens, Grain, and Tallow, we shall treat particularly.

Iron.

The English, upon all occasions, appear to have been the first to introduce useful discoveries and enlarge the means of the Russians. This is evident in respect to iron, which has become an article of much consequence in Russia. In 1659, Ivan Vassilievitch granted the English the privilege of seeking out ore and establishing iron-founderies, on condition of their paying about a farthing per pound and teaching the Russians the art of making iron. The first iron mine of any conse-

quence, however, we find in Russia is one near Mosco, established by Alexey Michailievitch, which is still worked, and at which Peter the Great himself laboured. The insight he acquired here caused him, in 1698 and 1701, to send to Saxony for some able miners; nor was it till so late as 1703, that discoveries led to the establishing of the Siberian and other mines. In the government of Perme such progress was made, that, before 1711, all the expenses were more than doubly paid, after raising furnaces, forges, founderies, flatting and slitting mills.

To such an extent were they already arrived, in 1726, that upwards of 25,000 tons of bar and wrought iron were sent by the already-described water communications, as well as large quantities of copper. The impolicy of the Swedes, in keeping the price of their iron at a high rate encouraged the Russians. The then abundance of fuel near the mines in Russia, the large quantity of rich ore, the cheapness of labour, and the reasonable price of the necessaries of life for the boors, caused founderies to be quickly extended, although the price of iron, even towards 1760, was not more than from 60 to 65 copecks per pood. At this rate, they cleared immense profits; and all those families who had fortunately embarked in the iron manufactures, as the Demidoffs, Twerdichoffs, Jacovloffs, Lughenins, Strogonoffs, Waronzows, Gurioffs, and Lazaroffs, have amassed princely fortunes. The richest and most productive mines are in the Uralian mountains, the government of Perme, the adjacent district, and on the Siberian side, which produced from about 55 to 65,000 tons of iron annually. The Altayan mountains are productive, but still more so the Nertschinskian, not only in iron, but in silver, and some gold. At Olonitz there are mines which produce ore of an inferior quality. In short, the Uralian, Altayan, and Nertschinskian mountains, produce not only the most iron, but likewise copper, as well as silver, which Kolivhan likewise produces in considerable quantities. In the Uralian mountains alone the works, in 1779, had extended so largely as to have upwards of 100 smelting-houses, two-thirds of which were for iron, the others for copper; and, of the former metal, they produced near 64,000 tons alone. In other parts of Russia are mines, besides those we have described, but the ore is of an inferior quality. In the whole empire, without reckoning the little smithies and forges scattered here and there, the produce of iron, annually, was, at that time, about 80,000 tons, from the above year till 1793 or 1794. Of this quantity about half is exported, the other be-

ing used for necessary purposes in the interior, which must be considerable in so large an empire; besides the various manufactures, such as those at Tula, for firelocks, pistols, sabres, and, at other places, for the various branches of hardware: those manufactures increased by the prohibitions that took place in 1793, when the importation of all hard-ware was prohibited, scythes excepted, which the Russians cannot yet make in sufficiently great perfection.

In the year 1794, all iron-works were offered assistance in cash from government; and those who took the benefit of such aid were to pay two copecks per pood, in addition to the duties already paid. Some regulations were likewise introduced by government, in favour of the poor boors, tending to abridge their labour.

The Russians conceiving that the foreigners could not carry on their manufactures without their iron, imprudently raised the price, by degrees, from 70 to 80 copecks per pood, which it was, in 1770, up to 200 and 220 copecks for new sable, and 250 copecks for the best old sable, previous to the prohibition of the exportation of deals which took place at the close of 1798.

The exportation of iron from Russia after the year 1784, but particularly since 1794, has been upon the decline; for the last year, the export to Great Britain was not a third part of any of the previous three years. In the year 1784 the whole export from Archangel and the Baltic was about 50,000 tons, of which Great Britain alone took above 40,000; and in the year 1781 she imported 50,000 tons from Petersburg alone; whilst the whole exportation from thence for the last four years, was, on the average, only about 40,000 tons, of which Great Britain has taken 30,000, and in 1804 only 5848 tons.

It may not be unacceptable, when we are speaking of the most useful though least valued metal, the produce of Russia, that we should likewise mention the others.

Gold has been found in considerable quantities in Russia. The first mine of this valuable metal was discovered in the mountains of Olonitz in 1739, and one for silver in 1704. Many other discoveries have been made of gold and silver mines which are worked; but the most considerable is that of Kolhivhan, which had been worked by Demidoff, the rich Russian iron master, from its discovery till 1745, when the crown took possession of it. The whole of the native produce of Russia has been estimated at

Gold about . . .	42,675 pounds weight
Silver . . .	1,564,750 ditto.

The best copper mines are in the Uralian, Altayan, and Olo-nitzian mountains, of which the first is by far the richest. In the Uralian mountains alone, there were, twenty-five years ago, sixty smelting houses, which produced about 6,200,000 pounds weight. The whole annual produce of the empire has been about 7,350,000 pounds weight; but as the produce of the mines is decreasing, the whole cannot be reckoned at present at more than 7,000,000; which is chiefly coined for circulation.

*The whole Quantity of Iron shipped from Russia in 1793,
was as under.*

	Iron.			Iron.	
	Rubles.	Rubles.		Poods.	Rubles.
Peterburgh	4745,648		Bar iron	2503,757	4258,228
Riga	122,236		Afforted iron	291,575	901,464
Wyburg	4,571		Plate iron, and cast		
Revel	3,000		iron goods }	37,917	44,433
Fredericksham	83	4875,538			
Archangel	183,070	183,070		3033,249	5204,125
Taganrog	111,838				
Cherson	13,254				
Theodosia	12,490				
Eupatoria	7,740				
Otchakoff	150				
Yenicalé	54	145,517			
		5204,125			

The exportation of iron throughout the whole empire, in 1802, amounted to 4,617,989 rubles.

*The Estimation of the Russia Old and New Sable Iron in the English
Markets has generally been reckoned.*

Quality. OLD SABLES.

1 CC ND.

{ Peter Savich Jacovloffs.
2 { Serjey Jacovloffs.
{ Ivan Jacovloffs.
3 Peter Demidoff's.
4 Alexander Demidoff's.

Quality. NEW SABLES.

1 Gurioffs.

{ Twerdichoff's.
2 { Gleboffs.
{ Ossokins.
{ Waronzows.
3 { Strogonoff's.
{ Lazaroff's.
{ Ivan Nikita Demidoff's.

Some part of the iron that is loaded, in the barks, at the works in Siberia, ready for the opening of the waters there, usually arrives at Petersburg in September, and the barks continue to descend till the rivers close again. The remainder only arrives the following year from the opening of the rivers till about July.

Wood.

The wood trade is nearly connected, in Russia, with that of iron, and naturally leads to this consideration; that not being an article like the manufactures, or the annual produce of the soil; time, care, and salutary regulations are required to preserve a constant trade and keep up a stock to supply the demand.

In such an extended and uncultivated empire as Russia, abounding with immense forests and large woods, sufficient for all the internal and domestic purposes of its inhabitants, both for fuel and building, as well as for the wants of other nations, by exportation, if proper regulations were adopted respecting her forests and her timber, she might be to Europe what the Newcastle coal-trade is to London and the east of England, with this greater advantage, that, whilst the latter will be exhausting by the slow and progressive effects of time, the other would continually be renewing, by a constant succession, for ages to come.

Let us look at the immense forests in the governments of Archangel, Olonitz, and Wologda; the wood of which might be exported from the former place and Onega; whilst the wood growing in other provinces, in forests equally great, communicating by water with Petersburg, might be shipped from the latter port. By far the best fir wood in Europe, and the finest masts come by way of Riga, from those provinces, which have rivers falling into the Dnieper. An immense quantity of timber comes down by way of Memel and Dantzic, from the Russian and Austrian provinces, and the whole of Poland; these supplies are at present sufficient for the consumption of Europe, whilst the immense forests in Tobolsk, Irkutsk, and throughout Siberia, are sufficient for all the purposes of their iron manufactures and the interior; surely then, with such supplies, if suitable regulations were made, this branch of commerce would be one of the staple and most productive and permanent of the Russian empire, since most others may in time be exhausted,

whilst this could not, unless the population should become so considerable as to destroy it.

Notwithstanding such apparently inexhaustible supplies of wood, and the regulations which even before existed for its preservation, yet we find at the close of the year 1798, from the mistaken notions of the proprietors of the iron mines in Russia, that they succeeded in procuring a prohibition, to the exportation of timber, in toto, which they afterwards modified, with a view of benefiting themselves. This measure was the means of raising the price of iron,¹ in consequence of the additional freight the English were obliged to pay, because they could not get deals as usual to load their ships; this operated to the prejudice of the Russians, and diminished the exportation of iron, besides depriving the government of an annual revenue, from wood, of considerable amount, and the proprietors of the forests of a permanent resource.

In 1740, deals sold, at Petersburg, by the hundred, for seven rubles, and in 1790, they cost from sixteen to eighteen rubles; and, just before the prohibition took place, they were selling from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ rubles per dozen, reduced to standard measure, that is, 12 feet long, 11 inches broad, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick, (let the length, breadth, and thickness be what it might), but the effect of that prohibition immediately put a stop to the saw mills working, the cutting of timber in the country, and the bringing of any supplies of wood down the rivers; the consequence was, that, for ordinary purposes, at Petersburg, the price rose to eight, nine, nay even ten rubles per dozen, and scarcely any could be got even at that price, as no person chose to bring supplies down, owing to the export trade being stopped, and the sale uncertain. This produced a fresh regulation; perhaps partly through the influence of the iron proprietors, who maintained, that if the English must have deals, they ought to be proportioned to the quantity of iron they took, which was therefore regulated, at 284 standard dozen of white wood deals for every 100 tons of iron exported. By an ukase, in the spring of 1804, half that quantity of red wood was allowed in addition to the white wood, for the same quantity of iron; but this privilege of exporting red wood deals was only granted to a few people, and therefore the proportion was perhaps exceeded; and those who exported iron only did not themselves exercise the privileges of exporting the deals, but sold it to others interested in that trade.

The cause of the prohibition of wood was supposed to originate with the proprietors of mines, who represented that, from the great quantity exported, they could not work their founderies; notwithstanding the price of iron had risen, on account of the high price of wood. Although this was in Siberia, from whence no supplies of timber can come to any shipping ports; and the evil complained of by the proprietors of the mines, arose from their not taking measures, in due time, to preserve a constant supply. Nor is it attended to more now than formerly: young trees being very frequently cut down for making roads, laid horizontally, and covered with sand. The prohibition to the export of wood had, in effect, no salutary end. The manufacturing of pitch, tar, and pot-ashes, was still carried on; and the young linden is yet sacrificed for making mats, and even shoes, for the poor peasantry. Whole balks are used horizontally, in building the peasants' houses, and for many purposes; and entire districts are in devastation, by cutting down every thing indiscriminately; so that every year, as the distance becomes farther and farther, they have to obtain supplies from a more remote quarter.

The indiscriminate destruction of wood may easily be conceived in the neighbourhood of the mines, from the situation many furnaces are in, by being obliged occasionally to suspend their works. In the government of Perme alone, it is supposed that betwixt 3 and 400,000 tons of charcoal is consumed, to smelt and work iron and copper; what an immense quantity of timber must be cut to produce so great a quantity of charcoal; particularly where there is no management or care in the forests, and where all is cut down as it comes, without a consideration to the future!!!

To return to the prohibition from exporting timber. In 1799, the whole exportation was only 344,000 dozen of deals, of which Great Britain took 321,000; whilst, in the year 1798, the aggregate exportation of deals, besides timber, had been 2,435,000 standard dozen of reduced deals, from Petersburg alone.

The consequence of this sudden prohibition was the ruin of many, without answering any beneficial purpose. Even the government itself lost a considerable revenue, as well as the individual capitalists concerned in the trade. The following is a statement of wood and timber on the spot, ready for shipping, at the close of the year 1798, and that which was previously contracted to be delivered in the ensuing years, 1799 and

1800, which will shew the loss to the individuals and to the state.

	Prime Cost.	Duty on Exp.
	Rubles.	Rubles.
Wood ready for shipping, for account of the Riga } timber-merchants	681,256	187,782
— for account of foreign commissioners	658,640	199,951
Wood contracted to be delivered in the year } 1799, 1800	1,339,896	387,733
	1,550,443	337,114
Total	2,890,339	724,847

It must, however, be observed that, in the year 1793, the importation of timber into Great Britain was not so large as previous years; which consequently lessened the export from Russia.

The unrestrained exportation of wood had caused its progressive increase from 1793 till 1798, when it was considerable as we have seen. However, from some regulations or system relating to the export, it again amounted, in 1802, to 1,442,013 rubles.

Of Hemp and Flax and their Produce.

The next article of export from Russia, and indeed the principal ones, are hemp and flax, which we must likewise connect with their products, forming altogether by far the most considerable in quantity and value of any article sent from Russia.

By the general tables which are under Petersburg, Riga, and other places, the whole quantity of hemp exported from Russia, as clean, outshot, pass, and codille is about 60,000 tons annually; of which Great Britain and Ireland take from 35 to 40,000 tons; and of flax, the exports in the whole, from 14 to 17,000 tons. In 1803, the whole quantity was about 15,000 tons, exported by Russia; of which near 10,000 tons came to Great Britain and Ireland. But the export of this article seems upon the decline from Petersburg, and nearly stationary at Riga. Upon the whole, however, it is upon the decline, as will be seen by a reference to the tables, at Riga; but particularly at Petersburg, from whence not more than half the quantity is now exported which used to be formerly sent to Britain.

The hemp and flax manufactured into sail cloth, (the former into cordage, and the latter into the vast variety of linens), will

shew the great quantity raised in the interior, which, after serving for home consumption, has a superfluity for exportation; the seeds of hemp and flax, and the oil extracted from them, make also a considerable article for exportation. The quantity of hemp-seed exported, which is chiefly from Riga, is from 14 to 20,000 quarters annually, principally to Holland; and that of linseed from 135 to 150,000 quarters yearly; one-half of this last is annually exported to England, both for the purposes of crushing and sowing, that for the latter purpose, being from Riga, has varied in the quantity considerably, as will be seen by a reference to the tables under the head of Riga. The Dutch are the great importers of sowing linseed, requiring from 50 to 70,000 barrels every year; and of hemp-seed from 10 to 20,000 barrels: some years as much as 30,000 for sowing only.

Besides the seed which is exported for sowing and crushing, the oil extracted is in very considerable quantity; hemp-seed oil in particular. In 1803, 1,992,100 gallons were exported, chiefly to Germany, and of linseed oil, only about 4000 gallons: although this quantity appears very considerable, it is but a small proportion of the whole that is produced, the interior consumption being immense for the ordinary purposes, but particularly for the lower classes, during their fasts.

These two articles, then, of hemp and flax, form the most prominent feature in the exports of Russia, in their raw and manufactured state, and bring by far the greatest riches to the state, and to the individuals. The great extent of territory enables them to break up fresh land continually, without interfering with the produce of their grain.

Hemp and flax are to be had all over the empire; not but that their quality varies materially, according to the soil and climate; neither are they particularly attended to in the culture, each boor or peasant growing a sufficiency for his own use, and some for sale, which is collected by people called Bollins, who again sell it to those native merchants who take it down to the shipping ports.

Hemp, at Petersburg, in the year 1733, was with difficulty sold at five rubles per berquet; in which year, the exchange on Amsterdam was from $53\frac{1}{2}$ stivers, down to $46\frac{1}{2}$ stivers per rable; taking the exchange at the medium, it was not eleven pounds per ton. On account of the quantity of specie in the country, in which payments were then made, higher prices, it was said, could not be obtained, although six or seven rubles per berquet would have afforded a handsome profit; but it was asserted, that if contracts at that period had been made in suf-

sufficient time for the following year's crop, at only eight or nine rubles per berquet, any quantity might have been obtained. For hemp, before the close of the century, the sum of sixty rubles was given.

A general idea prevails, and not without some foundation, that the hemp and flax, from Riga, are of a stronger harle and better quality than what are usually shipped from Petersburg; but as the brack at Petersburg was put upon an equal footing, in 1799, with that at Riga, there is not now that difference which formerly existed; the quality of each, under the respective denomination, being intended to be the same.

However, the flax, particularly from Riga, has certainly some preference, on account both of climate and soil. The hemp which is shipped from Riga, chiefly comes from the Ukraine, and the best sort is the Drujana hemp, from the province of that name, and it is nearly equal to the Konigsberg rein, reckoned the best in the world, which the Dutch chiefly monopolized for their whale-lines and fisheries. The hemp, shipped from Petersburg, is produced in the various provinces eastward of the Ukraine: however, occasions have occurred, when the clean hemp was sent from Petersburg, by the native Russians, to Riga; whilst the brack of the former was inferior to that of the latter, but there is no advantage in this now; besides Riga gets sufficient supplies for her trade from the interior.

Hemp shipped of the following Sorts, from Russia, in 1793.

	Hemp.			Hemp.	
	Rubles.	Rubles.		Poods.	Rubles.
Peterfb. & Cronstadt	3,747,935		Hemp 1st fort	2,223,065	5,031,270
Riga	2,274,999		— 2d fort	154,701	324,086
Pernau	15,862		— 3d fort	248,183	512,576
Narva	2,240		Codille	148,779	198,683
Fredericksham	1,887				
Wyburg	749			2,774,728	6,066,615
Revel	338				
Arensburg	147				
Ports of the Baltic sea		6,045,117			
Archangel	18,700				
Onega	2				
Ports of the White sea		18,702			
Cherfon	2,177				
Otchakoff	600				
Eupatoria	15				
Ports of the Black sea		2,796			
Total		6,066,615			

In 1802, the whole value of hemp only, exported from the empire, amounted to 9,346,091 rubles.

Flax.

The flax exported from Riga is certainly of the best quality of any that comes from Russia, being, to use the technical phrase, softer, kinder, freer from shives and blacks, and better adapted for the finer manufactures, particularly the Rakitzer and Marienberg clean. For other descriptions see the head Riga.

Formerly, a good deal was brought down in winter by sledge ways, but, since the canals were cut and interior facilities increased, a great part is brought down, by the spring barks, from the Pristans.

The flax at Petersburg has risen in estimation since the introduction of the amended brack in 1799; the principal supplies received there are from Novgorod, Carelia, Polotzk, Wologda, and other provinces; it passes through the brack, and is assorted into twelve, nine, and six heads, into bundles or bobbins, containing so many heads each; the twelve heads being often as good as Riga; but, in general, the Petersburg flax is of a broader fibre, harder and better adapted for sail making and the stronger manufactures.

Flax shipped off from the following Ports, from Russia, in 1793.

	Flax.			Flax.	
	Rubles.	Rubles.		Poods.	Rubles.
Riga	2,534,572		Flax best fort	868,327	3,664,485
Petersburg	1,644,727		— 2d do.	154,231	556,580
Narva	172,782		— 3d do.	83,616	227,039
Pernau	132,501		Codille	39,951	55,996
Revel	6,552				
Fredericksham	886			1,146,125	4,504,100
Wyburg	10				
		4,492,037			
Archangel		11,975			
Taganrog	56				
Cherfon	28				
Otchakoff	4	88			
		4,504,100			

The value of the flax exported from the whole empire, in 1802, amounted to 5,773,008 rubles.

Linen Manufacture.

The linen manufacture of Russia is carried to a great extent in ravenducks, flems, sail-cloths, drillings, broad and narrow linen, crash, &c. indeed in the government of Archangel is the finest and best linen, as good as any foreign, the manufacturing of it being originally introduced here by the Dutch. Similar manufactures of sail-cloth, flems, ravenducks, &c. were introduced by Peter the Great, from Holland, about Kostroma, Jatsk, and other places; there are now upwards of eighty linen fabrics of one kind or other throughout Russia, besides private families, supplying themselves for their own wants, and making occasionally for exportation.

It must appear extraordinary, after inspecting the accounts of the great exportation of linen from Russia, compared with that of other places, to learn that, for some time after the discovery of Archangel, England exported linens to Russia, particularly of the coarser kind. In 1674, it appears that the exportation of linen to that port was 23,330 yards; however, the progressive increase of the exportation soon after that period has kept pace nearly with Ireland, when, in the year 1799, it was estimated that there was sent for sale the following quantities and sorts to Petersburg.

	Yards.
Linens, fine bleached, in rolls	97,222
Huckabacks	198,333
Printed linens of all sorts . . .	163,333
Broad	540,555
Narrow	1,210,222
Broad diaper	1,317,555
Narrow ditto	1,403,890
Yards .	4,931,111

Here, then, in linens alone, which is but a small part of the value, without any particular aid, encouragement, or bounty, are no less than 4,931,111 yards; exclusive of which was the following valuable manufactured goods estimated at, not less on an average than 36 millions of yards more: making together near 41 millions of yards which is equal to what has been exported from Ireland, where more than half a million sterling has been paid to encourage the linen manufacture.

	Pieces.
Ravenducks 28, 31 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 36 inches wide, 50 arsheens long	250,000
Flems, 50-7 arsheens long, 42-5 in. wide	200,000
Drillings, bleached and unbleached, 50 ar- sheens long, 28 inches wide	250,000
Tickens of all sorts	14,000
Table cloths	15,000
Napkins	46,000
Sail cloth	198,000
For paper hangers	28,500

Pieces . 1,001,500

There are four denominations of *Ravenducks*, *Flems*, and *Drillings*, viz *Kostromsky*, which is the best sort; *Wesnikoffsky*, which is the second best sort; *Schousky*, also *Ivanowsky*, which two last are of an equal, but inferior quality to the others.

Exported from Russia to Great Britain on the Average of five Years, ending 1803, and the Average Price.

	Yards	Rubles.
Broad diaper	128,333	aver. price 155 per 1000 arsheens.
Narrow diaper	147,777	122 ditto
Broad linen	77,666	205 ditto
Narrow linen	295,555	120 ditto
Crash	933,333	70 ditto
Drillings pieces	8,000	29 copecks per arsheen
Flems ditto	30,000	16 $\frac{1}{4}$ rubles per piece
Ravenducks ditto	95,000	11 ditto

The whole Exportation of Hempen and Flaxen Linen from the Empire in the Year 1793,

	Rubles.	Rubles.		Arsheens.	Rubles.
Petersburg	3,650,552		Sail-cloth	2,523,300	846,351
Riga	75,026		Flems	2,792,650	1,158,788
Revel	6,830		Ravenducks	4,978,750	1,171,166
Narva	2,419		Calimancoes	813,872	254,320
Fredericksham	1,256		Ticken	159,473	44,819
Wyburg	1,142		Sackcloth	1,407,950	91,153
Arensburg	332		Fine linen	486,144	85,554
Pernau	126	3,735,703	Printed do.	36,154	6,403
Archangel	45,149		Table-cloth		
Onega	17	43,166	manufatures		
Eupatoria	6,672		1,149 poods	3,984	5,586
Taganrog	1,665		Common do.	608,455	123,031
Theodofia	165	8,502			
		3,787,371		11,337,898	3,787,371

The Value exported in the Year 1802, was

	Rubles.
Sail-cloth	694,724
Flems	746,947
Ravenducks	1,558,072
Fine and coarse linen	281,392
Linen calimancoes	119,488
Linen, printed	113,312
Table-cloths, napkins, &c.	23,921
	3,537,856 rubles,

Tallow.

Of all the articles of Russian commerce none have had so recent and rapid a rise as that of tallow, either in the increased quantity exported or in the enhancement of its price.

From the year 1752 to 1766, the whole exportation together, from Petersburg to Great Britain, was not 900 tons in fourteen years; although some was regularly shipped from Archangel. From the year 1766 till the present period, the exportation has been upon the increase, so that in the year 1803, Russia exported to Great Britain only no less than 27,450 tons; the whole exportation that year, from Russia, on the side of the Baltic and Archangel, not including Courland, being 34,500 tons, and nearly equal to £.2,000,000 sterling in value; a quantity and sum almost incredible, when we consider the produce of an ox for other useful purposes.

It may cease however to be a matter of wonder, when we consider the immense extent of Russia, and so disproportionate a population.*

Indeed, if the breeding of cattle cannot be reckoned the first, it certainly is the second consideration of importance to the Russian empire, from the tallow, hides, salted beef, glue, and even the very bones which are exported. When one casts the eye over the map of Russia, particularly the southern and middle divisions of it, the many rich pastures and immense steppes, the little care required, and still less trouble in breeding cattle, the fertility of the soil, and the pastoral life, our wonder may cease; not only in the middle division, but to Petersburg, and

* The boors in most parts of the interior are not so extravagant as to burn either oil or tallow, when they can get so high a price. Lepeckin truly relates, in his travels, that he did not see a single village with a candle, but laths, continually renewed, were burned in their place, which is the case to this day. This makes their cottages very black, and the glowing parts dropping off, occasion frequent fires.

even so far as Archangel, the breeding of cattle is carried on with some success. The fine beasts of that district were first introduced from Holland, by Peter the Great, and still preserve their primitive appearance, notwithstanding that northern climate.

In such abundance, and so cheap are the cattle in the Ukraine, that large quantities are exported to Silesia and other places, and annually driven to Mosco, Petersburg, Revel, and Riga. Reduced in flesh by so long and tedious a journey, the Livonian landowners feed them and afterwards drive them to those markets; but, within the last two years, the increase has been considerable, not only in European Russia, but in Siberia, in the Ukraine, down to the Black sea, and from thence among the Don Cossacs. A good bullock may be bought for from 35 to 44 rubles; and not more than thirty years ago, Pallas states, that when he was at Krasnoyarsk, the price of a whole ox was one and a half ruble; a cow, one ruble; and the best horse might be had for three rubles; since that period the prices have advanced with rapidity beyond example, yet such is the plenty in the southern districts of Siberia, that every thing is cheap; indeed, it is from thence that tallow is now brought in such large quantities, along with the other produce of the soil.

In 1792, the exportation of tallow from Petersburg to Great Britain was 527,480 poods or 8,373 tons; and the aggregate quantity exported that year from Petersburg was 11,130 tons. As it will excite curiosity to know from what quarters the supply of tallow chiefly came, at that period, we shall just state the particulars received in the early part of that year from an intelligent Russ merchant, whose information seemed tolerably correct.

	Poods.
Mosco	112,000
Kolomna	130,000
Perlissalar	20,000
Zaraisk	7,000
Tula	30,000
Kaluga	20,000
Bieleff	20,000
Balaschof	2,000
Koursk	15,000
Kozloff	15,000
Woronetsch	45,000

Carried over 416,000

Brought over	416,000
Jatsk	15,000
Kostroma	12,000
Rostoff	45,000
Kasan	20,000
Kasimoff	5,000
Serpukoff	6 or 8,000
Siberia	120,000
Twer, produces only	4,000
Petersburgh and Cronstadt	10,000
From all other places and the utmost it can differ is	30,000
	685,000

The aggregate quantity exported that year from Petersburg was 701,450 poods

Since that period, we find the quantity exported is nearly tripled; it may therefore be presumed, that the quantity from Siberia is larger in proportion than at that period; likewise from the southern provinces; for, in 1803, the exportation from Petersburg alone was 1,973,776 poods.

Tallow exported from Russia in 1793.

	Rubles.	Rubles.	Poods.	Rubles.
Petersburg	3,527,907		1,035,529	4,279,000
Riga	4,919			
Wyburg	450			
Revel	140			
Arensburg	78	3,533,494		
Archangel	731,752	731,752		
Cherfon	11,026			
Taganrog	2,090			
Sebastopolis	588			
Yenicalc and Otchakoff	140	13,844		
		4,279,000		

In the year 1802, the tallow exported from the whole empire amounted to 9,663,766 rubles.

The further Produce of Neat Cattle exported from Russia at the two following Periods.

	1793.	1802.
Yufis	1,942,984	1,989,826
Tanned leather	306,714	374,545
Raw hides		93,600
Tallow candles	169,910	325,008
Salted beef and ox bones	20,916	113,522
Fat		213,933
Ox horns		8,137
Rubles	2,440,524	3,118,571

Grain.

As civilization extends, and population increases, in Russia, so will agriculture improve, if not from the wants of its own people, at least from those of other parts of the world; whilst the price of land is more reasonable, and labour lower than any other part of Europe, so will there be a greater field for the encouragement of agriculture in Russia: that it has already made some progress is visible. The exportation of corn and grain from the Russian ports in the Baltic was, betwixt the years 1771 and 1773, in one year, reckoning the average from three:

	Chetwerts.	Value.
Wheat	90,544	373,347 Rubles.
Rye	696,609	1,971,520
Barley	48,857	125,996
Oats	34,270	46,090
Malt	328	622
	870,608	2,517,575

And in one year, from the average of 1778, 1779, 1780, for 1,532,938 rubles.

The produce in grain shipped from the whole empire, recapitulating the above articles, to make a comparison of the whole, exported in 1793, in the following table :

	Rubles.	Rubles.		Chetwerts.	Rubles.
Riga	2,146,221		Rye	535,211	1,378,001
Petersburgh	136,780		Wheat	350,005	1,490,356
Arensburg	3,900		Barley	114,357	256,040
Fredericksham	201		Oats	10,850	17,200
Wyburg	143	2,287,245			
Archangel	176,527			1,011,323	3,121,597
Onega	595	179,922			
Eupatoria	210,200				
Otchakoff	207,616				
Taganrog	121,045				
Chertón	84,192				
Theodofia	31,377	654,430			
Odeffa					
		3,121,597			

Rye, wheat, and oats, are mostly exported from Riga; wheat, however, is also exported out of the harbours of the Black sea, as well as Archangel and Petersburg.

The encouragement given to the trade of the Black sea in general, but to the port of Odessa in particular, has caused considerable quantities of grain to be shipped to the Mediterranean, since that time, which used to go by the Baltic, but a few years before.

The exportation in the year 1802, from the whole empire, was in value,

	Rubles.
Wheat	4,055,907
Rye	5,604,422
Barley	1,004,144
Oats	206,056
Other corn	99,754
Wheat and rye flour	157,809
In spirits made from native corn	368,153

Rubles 11,496,245

CHAPTER III.

Of the White Sea and its Ports. Of Archangel and its Trade; its Amount and Exports, and in what it consists. The Estimate of Ship Building there. Prices of Corn for some Time past, &c. &c.

White sea.

WE begin with the details of the trade of Russia in this division, as being that with which we first had any direct commerce, as has already been stated. Till the foundation of Petersburg was laid, and ever since the flourishing state of that city, the White sea has enjoyed a share of the Russia trade, with other parts of Europe; chiefly arising from the facilities afforded by the river Dwina, which runs by Archangel. The other rivers, which fall into this sea, are the Petsshora, Mesen, Yuga, and Sukhona, from which little benefit is derived; the river Onega, falling into an arm of the bay, has chiefly had its trade in wood, and formerly ship building, as well as Archangel.

The trade of this sea to England alone, in the year 1655, amounted to above 600,000 rubles; and, from 1691 to 1700, the average amount of its exports to England were 112,250*l*. and its imports 58,881*l*.

The whole trade arising to Russia from this division has been upon the increase, in the years 1773 to 1777. Upon the average, the imports were 320,889, exports 1,541,482 rubles.

In the Year 1796, the following was the Statement of the Trade of the White Sea.

Ships arrived		Ships sailed.	Exports. Rubles.	Imports. Rubles.	Customs. Rubles.
163 1	Archangel Onega Kola Mesen	168 2	5,146,602 4,568	666,743	215,971 263 48 46
164		170	5,151,170	666,743	216,328
In 1802 236		240	4,796,017	549,732	

As Archangel is the port in which almost all the business is carried on, we shall directly treat of it, as embracing nearly, if not the whole of the external commerce of this sea.

Archangel

Is situated on the banks of the Dwina, about thirty English miles from its mouth, where it falls into the White sea.

The trade of this place consists in some iron, a little hemp ; considerable in linseed, which is reckoned of a superior quality, when well cleaned ; grain, which is of a small size, but, when dried, bears a long voyage ; considerable quantities of tallow, chiefly from Siberia ; and, indeed, most other articles, the same as from Petersburg, excepting for tar, the trade for which it almost exclusively enjoys in Russia, and also for pitch. In the year 1730, the monopoly of tar is stated to have been made by the crown, and that 40,000 lasts annually were sent to Holland, Hamburg, and other parts.

The produce is chiefly brought from Viätca, and Wologda, by the various rivers which fall into the Dwina : there is a conveyance by water all the way from Wologda, and from the Pristan, for the Viätca goods ; all which are brought down on floats of timber, prams, kayooks, and other rough constructed vessels, covered at the top ; the latter when they bring the goods down from the interior, lay near Sollenbole, from whence they are ordered along side the ships to discharge. Tar and pitch are sent down in old barks of the same kind to the harbour, from the tar strand, three or four English miles distant.

The prams and kayooks are broken up and sold, like those at Petersburg.

They have good accommodations for ware-housing their goods, both public and private, but the produce in general is shipped out of the country barks. Their brack has the same regulations as those at Petersburg and Riga ; but it happens, that the generality of produce from Archangel is not in the same estimation, except Siberia soap, tallow, and linseed, as that from Petersburg.

Before the prohibition of wood, considerable quantities of deals were shipped from Archangel, likewise Onega, which last are esteemed on account of their excellent quality.

Ships of a large size and handsome figure were formerly built here entirely of fir, for foreign markets ; and they have slips and conveniences for building six or eight large ships annually, if sufficient time is given to prepare the wood. Foreigners

may now build ships there, without any restraint; and a bounty is given to the burghers. We have given an estimate of the cost of a vessel of about 500 tons measurement, to be built of fir entirely: when proper wood has been selected and cut at the season it ought, they have been found useful and lasting vessels, for that description. They cost little more than half what a vessel of the same size, built of similar materials, in England, would amount to.

The harbour is at the island Sollenbole, about an English mile from Archangel. The bar, at the entrance of the Dwina, has generally about $14\frac{1}{2}$ feet water. Ships which draw more water must be loaded out in the roads by lighters; the anchorage is reckoned secure, though vessels have sometimes touched the ground without any accident happening.

As Archangel is now the port from whence all the produce of the White sea is shipped for foreign markets. The following is an account of the number of vessels employed to convey the produce for the year 1802, from the different rivers and ports, as coasters, to Archangel:

In the Ports of the White Sea.

Vessels.	For Transport.		For Fishing.	
	Vessels.	Lastage.	Vessels.	Lastage.
Russians	167	Account not given.	281	Account not given.
English	3	514		
	170	514	281	

It must be observed that the navigation here is not open till May, and that it generally closes again in October, and sometimes in September. Contracts are made here for goods the same as at Petersburg.

Notwithstanding the building of Petersburg took a considerable part of the trade away from Archangel at that period, yet it has progressively increased since, as a reference to the table of imports and exports will shew.

There is likewise a table shewing the principal exports from Archangel for the year 1804, and the exports to Great Britain from 1795 till the present year, and to France in 1802.

The weights and measures here are the same as at St. Petersburg, so is their money.

Being so remote from all places of exchange, the money transactions require some explanation.

The course on London is	100 days date.
Hamburg	75 ditto.
Amsterdam	75 ditto.

These bills they send to Mosco or Petersburgh to be negotiated, when they fix a course to cover all probable fluctuations. Those who have goods shipped from Archangel had better have their money drawn in at Petersburgh and sent to Archangel in bank assignments, the post office insuring it for a half per cent.

Sometimes they draw on Mosco and Petersburgh at eight days sight, allowing an agio of from 2 to 3 per cent.

An Account of the Imports and Exports to and from Archangel.

Years.	Ships arrived.	Ships sailed.	Imports.	Exports.
1724	23	22	{ No acct. of these yrs. } { in the Custom-house. }	164,116
1725	23	24		110,076
1726	29	30	31,103	247,625
1727	45	48	137,841	384,337
1728	41	43	135,353	306,069
1729	24	28	144,769	330,012
1730	41	43	108,779	288,252
1735	60	60	106,153	388,688
1740	115	120	94,704	570,955
1741	96	102	157,581	576,145
1742	50	52	414,632	411,256
1743	54	56	281,324	309,769
1744	30	33	132,667	273,681
1747	30	31	76,927	230,161
1750	51	49	178,954	310,492
1755	48	48	100,889	351,255
1760	32	37	177,325	530,866
1765	70	82	306,216	694,232
1770	68	72	336,420	878,773
1771	144	146	256,482	1,446,079
1776	126	126	347,713	1,416,288
1780	131	143	321,398	1,474,592
1785	95	101	411,718	1,553,999
1786	133	137	533,517	1,661,833
1787	123	127	440,665	1,671,020
1788	132	121	540,565	1,687,111
1789	118	127	900,480	2,373,303
1790	102	104	923,141	1,844,414
1791	146	146	808,615	1,872,064
1792	146	147	980,651	2,335,834
1793	110	109	460,708	2,525,198
1794	202	207	676,388	2,411,846
1795	120	124	822,461	2,799,680
1796	162	165	581,643	4,088,607
1797	105	104	614,762	2,456,922
1798	131		646,892	2,521,425
1799	127			
1800	147			
1801				
1802	225		546,882	4,492,836
1803	269		502,477	2,090,000
1804	115		388,474	1,072,129

Total of the Principal Articles exported from Archangel, in the following Years:

Years.		1795.	1796.	1797.	1798.	1799.	1800.	1801.	1802.	1803.	1804.
Articles.	Ships	125	164	104	131	127	147		225	269	115
	Iron -	Poods 106,885	152,553	175,542	157,127	68,463	75,581	85,868	153,781	74,951	4,016
	Hemp -	do 16,157	27,533	29,719	30,549	47,661	46,141	50,357	35,558	26,260	28,032
	Flax -	do 16,179	18,601	12,289	6,852	14,349	15,280	13,418	28,569	31,248	13,486
	Tallow -	do 120,365	184,070	98,341	103,373	148,776	126,054	70,952	168,325	170,077	106,844
	Train oil -	do 37,400	82,657	47,100	36,877	23,552	51,166	36,667	34,488	56,047	38,328
	Cordage -	do 22,226	39,303	49,140	34,107	26,414	35,912	6,782	20,321	6,859	3,832
	Hides -	do 13,450	20,675	7,751	3,249	3,598	7,502	6,179	14,023	10,922	4,036
	Pot Ashes -	do 9,457	7,761	5,260	11,458	25,290	26,311	3,467	19,549	12,302	475
	Bristles -	do 2,886	3,415	1,919	2,419	2,331	2,297	87,928	4,596	4,786	2,966
	Wheat -	Chets. 46,172	56,194	16,062		7,259	58,861				
	Rye -	do									
	Linseed -	do 53,625	76,946	35,963	32,261	34,515	81,083	68,216	159,794	131,304	47,734
	Tar -	Barrels 44,309	71,389	44,713	112,806	116,270	45,309	52,780	76,538	35,234	48,003
	Pitch -	do 70,450	5,731	7,951	10,662	7,186	6,815	13,310	88,364	11,038	47,485
	Mars -	Pieces 420,729	1,109,873	63,811	1,017,683	511,069	982,751	896,267	1,091,569	1,915,895	633,062
	Deals -	do 66,879	66,419	149,146	69,815	250	129,887	37,122			
	Timber -	do 2,817	1,868	2,008	664						
	Tongues -	do					18,605		1,182		
	Sail-cloth -	do 464	1,076	580	3,457	1,182	1,501		25,450	27,493	14,389
	Ravenducks -	do 361	300	160	100	265	316		876	543	200
	Fleims -	do 152	200	190	110	165	505				
	Diaper -	Arshns. 108,813	171,379	187,584	141,414	80,952	189,814		58,676	2,556	12,290
	Linen -	do 155,253		300		31,952				481	
	Crash -	do 39,434		58,578	10,057	10,007					

Principal Articles of Export from Archangel, to Great Britain and Ireland, in the following Years:

Articles.	1795	1796.	1797.	1798.	1799.	1800.	1801.	1802.	1803.	1804.
Tallow - Poods	64,498	140,122	73,513	92,462	139,422	81,970	44,182	146,605	86,308	
Iron - do	64,422	104,349	125,386	97,026	37,791	57,565	70,188	116,623	58,723	
Hemp - do	6,285	16,051	11,317	8,143	18,911	31,936	33,413	18,601	25,803	
Flax - do	6,443	6,245	634	6,852	13,890	11,949	8,826	23,075	18,067	
Bristles - do	1,658	1,475	582	341	2,016	1,200	2,687	638	3,300	
Pot Ashes - do	424	2,904	1,301	3,037	2,695	10,605	3,014	12,532	11,962	
Cordage - do	3,376			440	550	72			209	
Train Oil - do		1,463		129			1,888	171	308	
Linseed Oil - do		808								
Wheat - Chet.	4,220	10,129			2,774	36,558	51,041	6,623	23,411	
Linseed - do	19,547	23,823	7,105	11,234	2,724	49,252	40,297	53,810	20,291	
Barley - do	689	3,256					1,500		586	
Rye - do							2,200		4,375	
Oats - do	767	3,621	25,995	87,639	115,670	27,169	35,205	57,401	135,966	
Tar - Barrels	25,040	49,723	7,083	8,851	7,136	4,169	10,310	63,939	10,475	
Pitch - do	258,978	4,254	184,586	458,070	384,599	292,134	229,519	494,297	1,015,164	
Mats - Pieces	166,210	279,785	126,458	45,142	250	129,350	35,635	72,035	43,301	
Deals - do	64,473	62,811	342	334				1,182		
Timber - do	1,586	1,868			13,656	18,035		25,150	20,693	
Tongues - do								120	387	
Sail-cloth - do	57								102	
Ravenducks - do	14					150			54	
Flems - do						100				
Crash - Arsheens	280				4,000					
Diaper - do	487							18,000	2,507	
Linen - do	982								481	
Ditto printed do									256	

A particular Table for 1804 will follow.

Exported from Archangel to France, 1802.

		Wheat.	Candles.	Hemp.	Flax.	Iron.	Bristles	Hides.	Tar.	Pitch.	Mats.	S. cloth	Rav. duck	Rye.
		Chet.	Pood.	Pood.	Pood.	Pood.	Pood.	Pood.	Bar.	Bar.	Pieces	Ps.	Piec.	Chet.
Bordeaux	4	2208	936	1000	100	1800	20	50	3575	250	12620	60	100	2580
Marfeilles	2	2712		278							1550			
Nantes	1						75		1566					
Brest	1		505						1920					
Ostend	1		90				527		241	150	4000			
Ships	9	4920	1531	1278	100	1800	622	50	7302	400	78170	60	100	2580

Principal Exports from Archangel, in 1804.

PORTS.	Rye.	Wheat.	Linfeed	Tar	Tallow.	Hemp.	Flax.	P.ash	Iron.
	Chets.	Chets.	Chets.	Barrels	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Pood	Poods.
London		8,649	25,551	5,408	75,049	10,283	3,343		
Lisbon	5	17,272		1,323	442	70	2,756		1,000
Liverpool			980	2,828	8,258	1,251	608		
Leith				1,589	2,542				
Amsterdam	40,574	710	15,525	2,740	10,672	3,118			
Tonningen	2,430			1,385	401				
Bergen	1,821			650		259			
Rotterdam	2,690								
Dordrecht	70			710	766	502			
Barcelona		8,012		35					
Embden		400	14	8,933	561	983			
Hull			2,193	3,578					
Rochester			3,140						
Ayr				759		303			
Chatham				4,756					
Yarmouth				740					
Montrose				506					
Cork				600		1,147			
Lynn Regis				817					
Newcastle				1,000					
Copenhagen				430	675	318	204		
Portsmouth				2,950					
Dundee				400	1,193	368	1,080		
Leghorn							4,723		1,800
Antwerp			600	1,682	1,653	3,961	730	475	1,206
Stonehaven				1,136					
Plymouth				2,400					
Sundry ports on the conti- nent - -	144			130	907				
	47,734	35,043	48,003	47,485	103,119	22,563	13,444	475	4,009

CONTINUED.

PORTS.	Brillies	Candles	Hides.	Pitch.	T. Oil.	Mats.	Deals & Battens	Cord.	Tongue
	Poods.	Poods.	Poods.	Casks.	Poods.	Pieces.		Poods.	Poods.
London	708			2,536		154,230	7,070		11,189
Lisbon	32	12		300		5,050			
Liverpool				325		53,100	1,308	100	
Lcith						11,700			
Amsterdam	1,563		3,565	797		151,001	304		
Tonningen	307	4,484	99	30	8,327	99,979		2,090	1,000
Bergen				30		390	50		
Rotterdam				60		12,464			
Dordrecht				5		3,000			
Barcelona				150		1,743	197		
Emdden		40		200	970	47,700			
Hull	101					33,440	2,202		2,200
Rocheffer						800	414		
Ayr						1,500			
Cork				200		3,000			
Dundee				30		4,000			
Leghorn			372			400	201		
Antwerp	255			610	484	15,200	2,046		
Sundry ports on the continent - -		2,259		80	24,394	34,275		1,380	
	2,966	6,795	4,036	5,353	34,175	633,062	13,792	3,570	14,389

Goods remaining over at the End of the Shipping Season in 1804.

Rye 57,000	Chets.	Iron 200,000	Poods.	Flax 2,600	Pood	Sail Cloth	} 200 Pes. Deals 11,000 doz.
Linseed 15,000		Pitch 57,000		Tar 40,000	Bar.	and Rav.	
Wheat 15,000		Train oil 28,000		Mats 540,000	Piec.	ducks	
Oats 500		Hemp 5,000					

Price of Grain in Archangel in the following Years:

Years.	RYE. Chetwerts.		BARLEY. Chetwerts.		WHEAT. Chetwerts.		OATS. Chetwerts.		PEASE. Chetwerts.	
	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.	Copks.
1789	250	300	220		450	500	150	80	100	
1790	260	350	220		500	700	150	180	100	
1791	270	350	260		600	700	160	200	110	
1792	350	400	260	300	520	600	160	200	100	
1793	380	420	300		600	680	170		100	
1794	400		300		800	1200	180	210	120	
1795	300	400	300		800	1200	180	225	130	140
1796	400	500	330	350	800	1200	250		120	145
1797	500	570	300	350	600	800	160	200	120	140
1798	400		300	360	600	800	180	210	140	
1799	400	530	300	380	700	800	180	250	120	
1800	450	550	300	400	800	1200	225	275	120	160
1801	400	520	300	450	700	1200	200	300	160	
1802	500	600	300	450	800	1200	200	300	180	
1803	600	800	300	450	800	1000	390	450	140	180

A Chetwert is five Bushels and three-quarters.

Estimate of the Cost of a Vessel of English Frigate-Construction, of 500 Tons Measurement, 130 Feet Keel, with two Flush Decks, Quarter Deck, Fore Castle upon the Upper Deck, Gun Ports, Head and Gallery, &c. with the whole Work and Sheathing.

	Rubles.
For the wharf and privilege	600
Necessary timber	4,500
Charges for providing the timber	100
Masts, yards, &c. complete	500
Building, or labour	7,000
2,000 poods different iron and nails, for all the iron work, except the gun ports and double sheathing, at 350 copecks	7,000
Charcoal for the upper work	250
Repairing the instruments or tools	100
500 poods oakum	500
50 poods lead	200
Sundry small materials, as tar, pitch, cloth, hair, bristles, chalk, resin, &c. &c.	700
Rafts, iron, and workmanship	75
Carriage for these materials	60
Painter, carver, and turner's work	215
A boat, sloop, and yawl	130
Pumps and gear	50
Sawing the wood	450
Locks, bolts, and glasses	65
Expenses of launching	325
Ship builder and surveyor	1,200
A set of work of Russia gearing	500
Sundry carriage and small expenses	500
350 poods anchors at rubles 4	1,400
2,200 ditto rigging 3 50 ea.	7,700
100 pieces sail-cloth 18 to 1800	
40 ditto ravenducks 12	480
5 ditto flems linen 15	75
Sewing, thread, &c. &c.	450
	2,805
Carried over	36,925

	Brought over	36,925
For the workmanship of the gun ports upon the upper deck, 13 of a side, 5 on the quarter deck and forecastle; in all 36 ports, with iron work, &c. &c.		450
500 deals	at 50 cop. rubles	250
650 waylocks	20	130
60 poods nails	325	195
Nails for the waylocks		22
35 barrels of tar		105
Carpenters and caulkers		550
Carriage of these materials		25
50 poods oakum		50
6 barrels of pitch		36
		1,363
	Rubles	38,738

If only copper sheathed to the water line, there are required 500 plates of 1 arsheen each, at 8 lbs. will be 310 poods, at rubles 20 per pood	6,200
Carriage from the fabric	310
For the sheathing, copper nails, at 40 nails on a plate, in all 75 poods	1,875
Smith, for workmanship, at 10 co. per plate, computed, if nothing comes betwixt the copper and plates	150

In all, with copper, the first cost rubles 47,273

Except the cook, kitchen and cabin apartments, water-cocks, colours, compasses, hour-glasses, and provisions; brokerage and commission, stamp paper, the guns and ammunition, rigging and equipping.

If a frigate of 400 tons is to be built of English construction, 120 feet keel, excepting the port holes, &c. &c. and the sheathing and copper, would cost

	Rubles	38,500
Port holes and workmanship		400
For the sheathing and workmanship		1,100
Copper sheathing and labour		7,600

A vessel of 400 tons sheathed and coppered would amount to 42,600

CHAPTER IV.

Of the Baltic Sea, as connected with the Russian Empire. Its Ports in that Sea. A Table shewing when they are open, and when they are shut by the Frost. The Account of the Shipping, &c. in 1797 and 1802. Of the Trade and Navigation of all the Ports of Russia in the Baltic.

IT was only in the year 1558 that the English first had any direct trade to Russia by the Gulph of Finland; and, in 1560, the King of Poland threatened Queen Elizabeth of England with his resentment, if she suffered her subjects to continue it.—What great changes have taken place amongst these three powers since that period.

It was the building of St. Petersburg which drew the principal part of the Russia trade thither: the subsequent conquests from the Swedes, of all the provinces and south coast of the gulph, quite to and including Riga, added great importance to it; for, in the year in which the piles were driving for the foundation of Petersburg, Riga alone loaded and despatched 292 ships from her harbour.

The ports which Russia possesses in the Gulph of Finland are Fredericksham and Wyburg, in the government of Wyburg; Petersburg, the residence and capital of the government of that name; Narva, Revel, and Hapsal, in the government of Revel; as is Arensburg in the island of Oesel, immediately facing the Baltic sea; Pernau and Riga, in the government of Riga, and in the bay of that name.

As Petersburg ranks the first port, by its commerce, in the empire, and Riga the second: we shall treat particularly of the trade of these two cities under separate chapters; in a third, of the others, under their respective heads; and, at present, give a state of the trade of Russia collectively by the Baltic sea.

The navigation of this sea is always closed during the winter, and it becomes tempestuous as that season approaches, till closed. A statement of the periods at which each Russian

port throughout the Baltic is closed by the winter, or opened by the spring, may be useful.

THE FOLLOWING PORTS OPEN:

At Revel in the month of	February or March
Riga ditto	March or April
Pernau ditto	February or April
Arensburg ditto	February or March
Hapsal ditto	February or March
Baltic Port ditto	February or March
Narva ditto	April
Cronstadt and } ditto	April
St. Petersburg } sometimes	May
Wyburg ditto	April
Fredericksham ditto	April

THE FOLLOWING PORTS SHUT:

At Revel in the month of	November or December
Riga	October or November
Pernau	November or December
Arensburg	November or December
Hapsal	November or December
Baltic Port	November or December
Narva	October or November
Cronstadt and } October	or November
St. Petersburg }	
Wyburg	October or November
Fredericksham	October or November.

Rogervich Bay, or Baltic Port, Revel Bay, Kasperwick, under Hogland Island, Aspo and Sceskar, are the principal and safe anchoring places. The coast is rocky.

Excepting Revel, the whole of the ports are more or less dangerous for the loading and landing of goods. Between Petersburg and Cronstadt are frequent accidents. From Narva, into the Roads, but little danger; and the same at Riga. The proprietors of goods would always act prudently to include in their policy those risks specifically, which occur from taking on shore till safely on board, to prevent any altercation in case of loss, and the underwriter will of course take into consideration this small but additional risk.

As Great Britain has her principal intercourse with Russia

by means of the Baltic, the following observations may be found useful to many.

Masters of vessels, when they arrive in sight of the guard ships, &c. are to hoist their colours, and bring to, for the purpose of the guard ship sending her boat, to make the necessary inquiries, particularly whether the merchantman has any gunpowder on board; and, in case there is, the same must be removed on board the guard ship, and kept there until the departure of the merchantship, when it will be restored; but, if concealed and afterward discovered, the master is subject to very heavy penalties.

A custom house vessel, which is always stationed close to the guard ship, then sends her boat, and places an officer on board, where he continues until the vessel reaches the port, first putting seals on the passengers' trunks, &c. &c. in which state they remain until sent to the custom house, where they are examined; which sometimes takes eight or ten days.

As soon as vessels come to an anchor at Cronstadt Mole, captains are to go immediately to the agent, and make a proper report of their cargoes, ship's crew, names and number of passengers, &c. and in their manifest to specify every thing on board: likewise, on their departure, passports, particularizing their cargoes, &c. will be required by the proper officers at the custom house and admiralty.

Passengers must produce their passports to the governor, or commanding officer, before they are permitted to leave any port in Russia, or frontier by land: when they arrive they should go immediately to the police master general, produce their pass, and shew him to whom they are recommended, their business, &c.

Travellers by sea and land are neither to arrive or depart without passports; otherwise liable to detention, until the proper officers are satisfied.

Previous to departure, the laws of Russia require persons of all descriptions to cause an advertisement to be inserted in the public newspapers, three times, in the Russian and German languages, expressive of their intention to leave the country, their profession, &c. agreeable to a form prescribed; in order that all persons having claims may make them, and be satisfied before the advertiser departs.

A pass, from the minister for the country to which such person belongs, must also be produced to the general police officer, who, upon being satisfied therewith, will grant him a government passport if he goes by land; but if by sea the same

memorial will be required with the government pass; as likewise one from the admiralty.

By referring to Petersburg and to Riga, a pretty accurate idea may be formed of the progressive increase of the trade of Russia by the Baltic sea. Betwixt the years 1773 and 1777, its gross amount is stated—imports, 10,790,918 rubles;—exports, 14,724,610 rubles. In 1788, when the French had the benefit of a treaty, and the English none, the proportion of this trade with Great Britain and that of all other nations, was

	Exported.	Imported.
To and from the British dominions	10,088,489	1,423,070
all other nations,	16,089,521	16,460,458
Rubles	26,178,010	17,883,528

The French revolution had some effect on this trade, as will be shewn in dwelling on the respective interests of Russia, Great Britain, and France. In consequence of the English resuming their former limited advantages, and the ukase of April 1793, prohibiting French manufactures and produce, this trade in the Baltic ports stood thus:

	Exported.	Imported.
With Great Britain,	16,125,744	3,399,520
all other nations,	17,275,927	15,646,189
Rubles	33,401,671	19,045,709

It was not until the year 1795 that Courland came under the Russian dominion absolutely, and its revenues added to those of the empire. The ports which Russia now has, commencing from the borders of Swedish Finland, round the Gulph, and into the Baltic sea, with their imports, exports, amount of customs, and the number of ships, are as follows, for the year 1797. It must, however, be observed, that 1796 was an uncommon year in Russia: the number of ships arriving in the Russian ports of the Baltic were 3,086, and 3,104 sailed.

*Comparison of the Trade of Russia, in the Baltic, in the Years 1797
and 1802.*

1797.	Ships arrived.	Ships sailed.	Imports.	Exports.	Customs.
Fredericksham	25	24	26,503	62,623	7,821
Wyburg	83	86	95,149	154,131	24,653
St. Petersburg	887	841	19,374,114	32,213,909	3,141,019
Cronstadt				237,001	7,348
Narva	107	107	121,006	526,776	60,751
Revel	118	85	1,505,719	359,535	207,773
Hapsal	5	4	12,526	9,896	2,485
Pernau	112	104	932,800	729,697	239,095
Arensburg	22	29	30,266	111,678	10,647
Riga	864	878	2,490,540	10,412,383	844,121
Windau	53	46	99,774	299,993	22,148
Liebau	265	268	904,422	1,825,621	222,951
	2541	2472	25,592,829	46,940,443	4,790,807
In 1802, were	2768	2632	32,983,418	46,917,134	

In the year 1802, there came into all the ports of Russia in the Baltic, vessels of the following states and nations; by which we may judge of the respective proportions of the trade of each in that sea.

SHIPS.	Arrived.				Sailed.			
	Laden.	Lafage	Unladen.	Lafage	Laden.	Lafage	Unlad.	Lafage
Russian	69	3432	34	2914	98	6124	2	65
English	308	32862	515	49234	758	76072	39	3663
Dutch	34	2632	155	17137	171	18540		
Swedish	222	9958	210	11275	424	20406	12	606
Danish	150	7414	190	10867	336	18065		
Prussian	133	9550	253	19873	379	29943	4	313
Lubeck	152	7585	13	1322	146	8304	1	54
Rostoc	23	881	20	1124	36	1757	1	48
Hamburg	9	661	13	1183	23	2091		
Bremen	12	928	23	1575	33	2367		
French	7	724	7	604	14	1248		
Spanish	7	519			6	404		
Portuguese	8	476			8	476		
American	37	3381	26	2738	61	6205		
Mecklenburg	5	283	63	3630	72	4189	1	65
Oldenburg	4	261	20	1047	23	1200		
Papenburg	6	344	15	658	18	062		
Munster	1	38	24	1926	26	1867		
Total	1187	81935	1581	127111	2632	200921	60	4814

For a country abounding with so many resources, particularly for ship-building, as Russia, she possesses little shipping; indeed her natural position will always be an obstacle. In her ports in the Baltic, there is some little coasting, by taking the produce from one part where there are no ports, or the want of shipping, to another for exportation; and in this the foreigners participate the few months which the gulph is open, though the Russians have the greatest share. The following is an account of their coasting trade for the year 1802.

	For Transport.		For Fishing.	
	Vessels.	Lastage.	Vessels.	Lastage.
Russian	531	25044	Of these vessels returns have not as yet been received.	
English	12	1011		
Swedish	4	195		
Danish	8	238		
Prussian	2	68		
Lubeck	3	143		
Bremen	1	56		
Hamburg	2	198		
Papenburg	1	84		
Oldenburg	1	35		
	565	27072		

In order to shew the general state of the trade to the latest period, and more particularly the articles which comprise the imports and exports in the ports of Russia in the Baltic, it may not be unacceptable to shew the balance in which each denomination really is, particularly as the value is given betwixt the raw materials other nations take, and of manufactured articles which Russia takes in return:—both will tend to demonstrate, that the balance which is gained by Russia of Great Britain is absorbed by other nations. If three parts of the whole external trade of Russia is carried on by the Baltic, and Great Britain takes from half to two-thirds of that amount in their exports, without an adequate proportion of her manufactures being taken in return, that power must be the chief cause of the commercial prosperity of Russia.

STATE OF THE TRADE OF RUSSIA BY THE BALTIC,
In the Year 1802.

IMPORTATION OF FOREIGN GOODS.

Necessaries of Life.		Worth in Rubles.
Wine		2,001,577
Brandy, rum, &c.		96,056
All corn, rice, and grits		159,802
Sugar		4,831,311
Coffee		992,138
Cheese		110,373
Spices		259,682
Nuts		207,476
Meat		6,445
Fish		588,138
Butter		3,040
Salt		1,318,641
Honey		686
Tea		1,489
Fresh fruit		363,008
Preserved ditto		34,869
Dried ditto, and berries		213,889
Vinegar		61,592
Mustard		40,562
Oysters		39,821
Total		11,330,595
Metals.		
Gold in foreign coin		719,623
Silver ditto ditto		3,030,661
Silver in bars		250,115
Copper		16,109
Tin		227,379
Lead		176,699
Steel		16,863
Spelter		126,451
Quicksilver		22,174
Total		4,586,074

Raw Materials.

Worth in Rubles.

Cotton	254,185
Silk	450,870
Hair and wool	22,170
Colours	2,493,789
Sandal wood	276,255
Tobacco	128,606
Turpentine	412,658
Furs	183,839
Frankincense	40,129
Resin	83,343
Borax, tartar, aqua fortis, &c.	235,344
Apothecaries' drugs	219,714
Unwrought wood	100,558
Sugar	326,082
Juice of fruit	53,640
Soap	7,270
Sulphur	11,776
Sweet scented and mineral water	36,048
Cork	83,620
Orange and lemon peel	16,070
Shamoy skins	21,451
Coals	48,555
Iron plate or tin plates	172,045
Marble and stone	65,555

 5,743,572

Of this sort of goods the exportation exceeds }
 the importation by } 24,522,245

 Rubles 30,265,817

IMPORTED FOREIGN MANUFACTURES.

Cotton goods	Rubles 3,169,042
Linen ditto	169,713
Silk ditto	480,861
Woollen ditto	5,810,557
Toys	83,144
Gold and silver vessels	100,309
Iron manufactures	294,468
Pins	38,274
Wrought leather	8,565
Pictures	43,871
Statues and ancient ornaments	59,331
Writing paper	55,949

	Worth in Rubles.
China, earthen, and crystal ware	218,934
Mathematical instruments	183,908
Musical instruments	79,845
Plate glass	4,651
Printed books	101,641
Chimney pots	26,385
House and table clocks	23,706
Razors	7,981

Total 10,961,133

Living animals	5,439
Precious stones	12,170
Different kinds of goods	344,435

The whole importation is	32,983,418
The exportation in the ports of the Baltic } exceeds the importation by	13,933,716

Rubles 46,917,134

EXPORTATION OF RUSSIAN GOODS.

Necessaries of Life.	Worth in Rubles.
Corn brandy	163,340
Wheat and rye flour	97,032
Wheat	1,318,745
Rye	4,041,227
Barley	978,107
Oats	194,585
Other grain	13,241
Beer	1,510
Meat	88,661
Fish	587
Butter	77,625
Salt	308
Honey	1,079
Caviar	64,961

Total 7,041,008

Therefore the importation in these sorts } of goods exceeds the exportation by	4,289,587
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11,330,595

Metals.	Worth in Rubles.
Copper	16,112
Iron	3,741,928
Total	3,758,040
Therefore the importation of metals exceeds the exportation by	} 828,034
	4,586,074

Raw Materials.	
Hemp	9,059,159
Flax	5,583,479
Wax	219,515
Linseed	276,479
Tobacco	57,742
Hempseed oil	1,492,240
Furs	216,749
Pitch of all kinds	70,412
Resin	6,035
Potashes	801,121
Shamoys and dressed leather	1,655,139
Timber	1,142,840
Tallow	8,712,240
Fat	82,077
Soap	43,602
Raw hides	66,094
Feathers	79,496
Horse manes	56,624
Hops	69,187
Other articles	575,587
	Rubles 30,265,817

EXPORTED RUSSIA TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.

Sail-cloth	670,175
Flemish linen	745,472
Ravenducks	1,544,218
Coarse and fine linen	247,217
Flaxen calimancoes	119,488
Chest covers and printed linen	5,331
Tablecloths and napkins	113,728
Commodities, bureaux, and other domestic fur- niture	} 16,593

	Worth in Rubles.
Tanned leather	198,970
Yufts	1,090,966
Clothes and linen	23,921
Mats	4,409
Felts	400
Ropes and cordage	582,847
Candles	221,593
Iron manufactures and vessels	4,173
Copper ware	219
	5,589,720
Therefore the importation of these kinds } of goods exceeds the exportation by }	5,371,413
	10,961,133
Living animals	28
Different kinds of goods	262,521
The whole exportation is	46,917,134

CHAPTER V.

Of St. Petersburg, and Cronstadt, its Port. Its trade in 1800. Produce brought down the Neva and by Land to that Capital. Aggregate Exportation from Petersburg. Tables of the Exports to France, and to America. The same with different Nations. State of the Customs. Gold and Silver imported. Merchandise of different Sorts imported. Ships arrived and sailed, from the Foundation of that City. Exports in British and American Ships in 1804. Value of Exports and Imports from 1741 to the present Year.

GREAT cities owe their origin generally to the united efforts of individuals continued for ages, in which case they are irregular and badly built, until, at length, wealth increasing, when the private houses of the inhabitants decay, they are built up with more care and expense and regularity.

London, Paris, Amsterdam, Vienna, Madrid, Lyons, all the cities of Italy, and those of which we have had occasion to speak, in the north of Europe, rose up in this manner, by degrees; but there are a few cities that have been built by powerful monarchs, on a regular plan, and that therefore have started into importance at once, and soon became great and wealthy.

There were numerous cities in antiquity of this sort, but the principle example that is to the present purpose, is that of Alexandria in Egypt, built expressly by Alexander the Great, after he had taken Tyre and Babylon, in order to remove the trade of India from the Persian Gulph to the Red sea.*

* Babylon and many other great cities of antiquity were built in the same way, as their regular design proved, but their histories are scarcely known, or at least the authenticity of them is very uncertain.

Constantinople was built in the same way, intentionally for a great city, and became the capital of the eastern Empire at once, and in modern times we have seen St. Petersburg raised by similar views and exactly in the same manner.

Mosco, till the beginning of the eighteenth century, was the capital of the Russian empire, but it was not a sea port, and therefore did not seem fit for the capital of a large empire, to a man so ambitious and so sensible of the advantages of naval commerce as Peter the Great; he therefore, in 1703, laid the foundation of this city.

In 1713, a great part of the commerce from Archangel was removed hither, and finally, in 1721, the Emperor ordered the factories of foreign nations to be established at St. Petersburg. Its commerce has since been progressively increasing, so that it now certainly is the port of the greatest importance in the Baltic.

We cannot pass on without noticing Petersburg for the regularity of its buildings, and the beauty of the city altogether. It has engaged the attention of the different sovereigns, but the present will most likely put the finishing hand to make it the most elegant city in Europe. The following is an order of his imperial majesty, dated the 26 Feb. 1804, addressed to the minister of commerce, Count Nikolai Petroevitch, and will give a proof of his attention to this object.

“ I approve of the plan of building a new exchange of stone at St. Petersburg, and making a quay of stone along the river Neva, from the Isaac bridge to the end of the old exchange ; and for that purpose order commissioners to be appointed for carrying the same into effect, under their directions.” H. I. M. farther says,

“ I wish the building of the exchange to be finished in four, and of the quay of the river Neva in five years ; the works to begin in the spring of the following year. I order that the estimated sum of ro. 1,939,138 and 50 cop. for this work, shall be paid from the imperial treasury, and desire you, for that purpose, to apply to the minister of finances for the rest, I remain, your well wisher,

“ ALEXANDER.”

Petersburgh lays at the mouth of the Neva, upon its several branches, just as it falls into the Gulph of Finland, or rather

that of Cronstadt. After a long winter, when the thaw sets in, it is that the animated scenes of business commence, when ships are arriving from abroad, and the barks are dropping down the Neva from the interior, loaded with the produce of the country.

The barks with hemp and flax generally go direct to one of the three warehouses appointed for their reception, where they are unloaded. Two of these warehouses are built of wood, but the other (which was burnt down some years ago) is re-built on the site of the old one, a large handsome stone building, upon an island in the Little Neva, below the fortress; this warehouse is particularly convenient, and one at which the greatest part of that business is done, being now in no danger whatever from fire. The barks discharge on the one side into the ware-houses, where the hemp and flax are bracked into the following different descriptions :

Hemp—is packed into bundles of

Clean
Outshot
Pass
Codille,

Flax—packed into what are called bobbins.

12 Heads
9 Heads
6 Heads,

and shipped off on the other, in galliots to carry down to Cronstadt, or stored in the warehouse.

The tallow, hempseed and linseed oil, have a warehouse or wharf purposely allotted to them, and a bracker solely for those articles. Tallow consists of three sorts, called yellow, white candle, and soap.

The linens are housed at proper warehouses near the custom house: their names and quality have already been described.

Linseed and grain generally remain above the city in the barks in which they come down, until sold or shipped off. Their quality varies.

Although these articles generally come down by water, yet, in winter, when the sledge-roads commence, all sorts of fabrics or linen manufactures are brought by that conveyance; sometimes hemp or flax from Novgorod; peltry, wax, rhubarb, and other less bulky articles by that conveyance.

Cronstadt, which is the port of Petersburg, stands upon an island now generally so called, but formerly Retusari, which lays in the middle of the Gulph of Finland, about twenty-eight English miles below Petersburg : the port is on the south-east side, from hence is a constant communication by way of Oranienbaum, which is about five English miles from the shore.

At Cronstadt are the principal dock yards of Russia. The merchant-ships have a haven particularly allotted for them, distinct from that for the men of war. Although the docks communicate with each other no intercourse is suffered, unless any vessel requires such repairs as renders it necessary for her to go into the royal docks.

There are good regulations in the merchants' mole for the shipping, and they are very well accommodated.

The carrying trade betwixt Petersburg and Cronstadt, by galliots, is expeditious and safe ; it will, however, sometimes happen that strong westerly winds will prevent their working down till they get over the bar.

Vessels not drawing more than $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet water are allowed to go up to the city, being little more than this depth of water on the bar. It must be observed, that sometimes, by a long continuance of easterly winds, the water will be very low indeed ; and it will as frequently happen, that with strong continued westerly winds, (in autumn in particular), the water will rise suddenly very high, and cause considerable damage both at Cronstadt and Petersburg.

Men of war are built at the dock yards in the city, and are got over the bar by means of camels, or floating hulks constructed for that purpose.

Great Britain has a Consul General here, likewise a factory, to regulate all affairs relating to the British trade.

The merchants settle a certain rate amongst themselves, to be paid on all merchandise, for defraying the expenses of the establishments. They have a chaplain here, and another at Cronstadt.

The events, which took place in the year 1800, must not only be fresh in the minds of every one, but still painful to the feelings of many ; notwithstanding the generous and magnanimous compensation intended to be made to every one by his present Imperial Majesty, still there are individual sufferers who have not been equally happy with others in that affair, nor can any pecuniary consideration compensate for their losses.

A correct statement of the trade of Petersburg for the year, when that interruption took place, may not be uninteresting. It

must be observed that the value of the cargoes of the detained ships is in the accounts of the trade of that year.

State of the Trade of St. Petersburg and Cronstadt in 1800. Value of the Goods exported and imported by Merchants of different Nations, &c. &c.

		Value of	
		Imports.	Exports.
Russians	Rubles	10,370,247 98	11,310,851 43 $\frac{1}{2}$
British		21,031,195 07	5,647,692 64 $\frac{3}{4}$
Imperial		41,478 55	19,090 0
Danish		268,114 70	69,655 0
Mecklenberg		220 0	
Portuguese		239,813 25	153,055 75
Italian		1,554 0	400 0
Swedish		105,690 26	720 0
Sundry passengers		15,567 91	25,941 03
Shipmasters		181,472 78 $\frac{1}{2}$	80,774 25 $\frac{1}{2}$
More exported than imported		32,255,354 50 $\frac{1}{2}$	17,308,180 11 $\frac{1}{2}$
In 1799, they amounted to		14,947,174 39	
Less in 1800		38,169,924 81	19,290,778 77
		5,914,570 30 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,982,598 65 $\frac{1}{2}$

Besides the foregoing, there was imported to the Port of St. Petersburg, Gold and Silver, Coined and in Bars.

GOLD.	Number.	Pood.	lb.	Zol.	Rubles.	Cop.
In bars	4	1	22	92	32000	0
ducats	74225	15	28	40	326289	0
various coin	200	14	66		6800	0
SILVER.						
In bars	93	146	15	87	207410	0
dollars	1056403	1758	22	90	2190240	0
In 1799, there were imported					2762755	0
More in 1800					1240375	59
					1522379	41

Customs collected at St. Petersburg, 1800.

	Gold. Pds. lb. zol.	Silver. Pds. lb. zol.	Russ. Mon. Rubles.	Value of Bullion.	Total.
Collected at St. Petersburg & Cronstadt	3 35 46 $\frac{3}{4}$	2761.21 54 $\frac{3}{4}$	1602913 87	2231320 83	3834234 70
Gold & Silver.					
Gold in bars	0 8 57 $\frac{3}{4}$				
ducats	3 26 84 $\frac{1}{2}$				
Silver in bars		3 1 33			
Holland Dollars		1758 37 49 $\frac{3}{4}$			
Danish do.		26 29 88 $\frac{1}{4}$			
Swedish do.		115 14 33 $\frac{1}{4}$			
Spanish do.		857 18 42 $\frac{1}{2}$			
Fines		8 0 80			
Schools and wharfs	-	-	-	-	60759 04 $\frac{1}{2}$
Various other collections	-	-	-	-	1036512 32 $\frac{1}{2}$
In all				Rubles	4931506 06 $\frac{1}{2}$
In 1799, the collections of all denominations amounted to					4684184 02 $\frac{1}{2}$
In 1800, more collected					247,322 04

Number of Ships arrived and sailed; and Number remaining in Cronstadt.

	Arrived.	Sailed.	Remaining at	
			Cronstadt.	St. Petersburg
Russia	22	21	1	1
British	453	352	103	
Lubeck	77	76	4	3
Danes	84	84		2
Prussians	69	67	2	2
Rostocers	34	34	1	
Portuguese	3	3	2	
Americans	25	25		
Dantzic	7	9		
Sweden	51	52	3	
Bremen	6	6		
Oldenburg	6	6		
Papenburg	4	4		
Hamburg	1	1		
	842	740	116	8
22 ships wintered from 1799, and 4 new ones built.				
4 new ships were built; make in all 744.				
In this number 103 English were arrested.				

These ships arrived, viz.

Arrived. Sailed.

Full loaded	255	} Laftage {	incoming 68526 $\frac{1}{4}$ outgoing 65958 $\frac{3}{4}$	} In 1799, were ships 794 1800, left arrived 46 more failed 26	} 770
Part loaded	139				
In ballast	448				

That some idea may be formed of the importance of the trade at Petersburg for exportation, as well as for home consumption, an estimate is given of the quantity of goods annually brought down to Petersburg.

Iron.	Poods.
Iron, all sorts from Siberia	
Old and new sable, &c.	3,500,000
Hoop	4,000
Cast	2,500
Old	25,000
Nails	1,400
Nail rod	3,000
Sheet	500
Hemp, clean	
Outshot	4,750,000
Half clean	
Codille	
Flax, 12 heads	
9 head	595,000
6 head	
Codille	
Tallow, Yellow and white, candle and soap	
Tallow and candles	2,800,000
Pot ash. First and second sort	350,000
Hides. Called yufts	120,000
Bristles. First and second sort	50,000
Isinglass. First, second, and all other sorts	8,000
Wax, white and yellow	10,000
Candles	25,000
Glue	2,500
Hair, Horse	4,500
Cow	4,000
Elk	500
Rein deer	1,400
Cordage, all sorts of	350,000
Feathers	18,000
Sole leather	40,000
Oil, Hemp	350,000
Linseed	140,000
'Train	3,500
Nut	1,000
Liquorice	800
Soap, hard and soft	200,000

Caviar	30,000
Old rope	2,500
Oakum	7,000
Cotton	1,800
Horns, Deers	800
Rein deer	700
Oxen	40,000
Salt beef	50,000
Rhubarb	3,000
Castor, or castor stone	2
Horse tails	30,000
Morocco leather	400
Calf skins	55,000
Tobacco	150,000
Hair powder	400
Twine	1,000
Aniseed	2,000
Carraway seed	2,500
Honey	12,000
Resin	2,500
Tea from China direct	10,000
Tar	124,000
Steel	4,000
Copper	50,000

About poods 13,940,002

Of the above articles those which are bracked, will be seen hereafter.

LINEN MANUFACTURE.

	Arsheens.
Linen, Broad of all sorts, first and second	700,000
Narrow, ditto	1,500,000
Diaper	1,700,000
Ditto, narrow ditto	1,800,000
Huckaback	250,000
Printed linen of all kinds	200,000
Fine bleached, in rolls	125,000

Arsheens 6,275,000

	Pieces.
Ravenducks, 50 arsheens long, 28, 31 $\frac{1}{2}$, 36 inches wide	} 250,000

Flems, 50 and 57 arsheens long, 42 and 45 inches wide	}	200,000
Drillings, bleached and unbleached, 50 arsheens long, 28 inches wide		250,000
Tickens of all sorts		14,000
Table-cloths, ditto		13,000
Napkins, ditto		16,000
Paper hangings		25,000
Sail-cloth		200,000
	Pieces	968,000

GRAIN.

	Chetwerts.
Linseed	200,000
Wheat	500,000
Oats	600,000
Rye	550,000
Barley	250,000
Malt	300,000
Pease	150,000
Barley groats	800,000
Hemp seed	150,000
Buck wheat meal shifted	100,000
Grist millet sifted	40,000
	Chetwerts 3,640,000

PELTREY AND SKINS.

	No. of
Skins. Calf	325,000
Hare	1,500,000
Bear	20,000
Fox	22,000
Squirrel	110,000
Sable	13,500
Martin	1,100
Ermine	10,000
Cat	10,500
Lynx	1,300
Dog	15,000
Lamb	25,000
Weasel	1,500
Parchment, skins of	4,000
Wolf	18,000

Pole cat	2,000
Sheep	116,000
Squirrel tails	400,000
Ditto in sacks	
Sable ditto	10,000
Fox ditto	25,000

No. of skins 2,629,900

	No. of pieces.
Matts, first and second sort	1,700,000
Tongues, Neat's tongues	200,000
Flints	1,000,000
Toolups, or fur gowns	200,000

Before the prohibition of the export of wood, the circa amount brought down to Petersburg was estimated at

Timber, viz. Deals	3,530,000
Lathwood	800,000
Yards	150,000
Bowsprits	6,000
Masts	5,000
Boat masts	3,000
	4,464,000

Besides timber of every description, not to be exactly ascertained.

Horn, oxen	100,000
Hoops, wood	1,000,000
Horse tails and manes	100,000
Morocco leather	20,000

In examining the account of produce exported, it will be found that Great Britain takes from half to two-thirds of the whole export from Petersburg, the aggregate quantity exported is analyzed, for the use of the British merchants, to each principal port of Great Britain, and to Ireland exclusively, and which is succeeded by another to America, from its independence to the present year; this is followed by one to France, from 1772, till 1803; which, compared with that to Great Britain, gives the plainest conviction of the importance of the British trade to Russia, and the considerable annual balance she draws from England. Some remarks will be made on this subject in the general observations, comparing them with the exports she takes.

Table of the Value of Goods imported and exported by Merchants and other Persons, at Petersburg, in 1804.

NAMES OF NATIONS.	Value of Goods.	
	Imported.	Exported.
	Rubles.	Rubles.
Russians - - - - -	12,930,662	10,443,646
English - - - - -	7,335,995	18,616,617
Austrian - - - - -	5,569	513
Danish - - - - -	983	43,968
Portuguese - - - - -	15,756	12,048
French - - - - -	122,332	4,602
Swedish - - - - -	235,923	186,793
Merchants of other nations - - - - -	70,287	5,803
Captains and masters of ships - - - - -	138,663	251,671
Total - - - - -	20,856,169	29,565,661
Therefore the exportation exceeds the importation by 8,709,492 rubles.		
N. B. The two lists do not agree exactly in the amount, though pretty nearly. This is the natural consequence of the one being ranged according to places, and the other according to the mercantile houses, and that very small transactions are overlooked in each.		
In 1803 the value was - - - - -	21,838,962	31,893,082
This year is therefore less by - - - - -	982,793	2,327,421
And the value of goods confiscated was 66,635 rubles - - - - -		

Number of Vessels arrived at and sailed from Petersburg and Cronstadt, in the following years:

1703 - - - - -	1	1764 - - - - -	360
1714 - - - - -	16	1774 - - - - -	727
1720 - - - - -	75	1780 - - - - -	554
1724 - - - - -	180	1787 - - - - -	783
1736 - - - - -	100		
1744 - - - - -	264	Subsequent years are already stated.	
1750 - - - - -	272		
1758 - - - - -	402		

ritish and other Shipping, from the Year 1787 to 1805.

1796	1797	1798	1799	1801	1802	1803	1804
684 469	440 434	619 434	456 315	512 633	470 509	651 481	385 396
1153	874	1053	771	1145	979	1132	781
2286206 28550 15010	1837223 20487	2658937 26895 4010	2000650 18729	1416226 16971	2033505 21513	2196534 9173	760390 10525
1686780	1596607	2052774	1602863	1485752	1475531	1868632	1463601
278252	225128	234940	485501	390009	247695	305817	344349
151356	117975	104196	236947	271309	242293	281584	349679
36176	36766	50487	384707	21496	20246	32709	22890
440160	336365	485099	349037	300153	208915	194237	321268
35769	17083	20744	94970	54804	16699	11170	24427
3385	717	2008	2073	815	589	417	341
23774	15766	41237	31177	32581	76530	48463	19898
122897	96920	110920	168378	198815	170786	55626	92519
1106852	1314770	1245471	1524036	1518051	1772565	1973776	1927943
5564	5055	2825	2295	5470	8469	2035	8431
26497	27592	33804	32913	32224	38473	38121	37913
5410	5981	7176	5659	6264	6150	5868	7005
10700	15236	76674	38163	7437	2175	10473	
597392	682023	431633	725930	682472	487254	542381	343822
447264	603894	110032	653309	323158	966132	479448	74184
1695455	1958634	2235159	1799150	1271511	1852984	1589274	1024203
55602	57387	65377	96105	64149	44512	35253	47378
150575	155268	142483	171287	133538	129931	107642	126173
59778	44858	73707	52038	66680	43398	60041	53315
12033	18866	24698	11694	18080	458377	7851	9709
3833419	2170465	3238692	343659	1365185	1113317	1998500	136131
231080	196465	39169	40200	28615	44785	36303	37770
431587	414126	552433	499354	269916	302158	426310	585651
68441	54951	73272	55373	55005	78431	61039	55336
98147	18616	2026	11331	187198	69144	52698	38920
353954	317485	208004	135656	237840	391704	400182	
5441	7168	8768	2814	8725	6052	4144	3815
97948	65824	102663	17393	91003	89773	43250	71830
100590	130977	225635	196385	256174	284641	172073	179382

STATION HOUSE BOOKS AT PETERSBURGH

ART	1789	1790	1791	1792	1793	1802	1803
	61	55	70	37		1	13
Iron in b ₃	86959	92946	99070	43758	All French manufactures and produce prohibited, and all intercourse with that country, by ukase, March 1793.		9700
Hemp, c ₃	81257	164337	261269	114208			48288
o ₃	84583	26040	32112	31694			2032
h ₅	87196	29727	42212	40569			
Flax, 123	499	44	75	130			
9 & 1	1749			35			
Isinglass ₅	197	60	120	174			9
Bristles	194	445	4553	1215			570
Wax	870						
Tallow ₉	30463	20148	44133	1510			
Flems ₄	608	7	642				
Ravendu ₁	316	644	1523	108			
Sail-cloth ₈	2424	6191	3500	31			
Deals	7948	10865	13433	6414			375
Hare ski ₂	6075	2700	14360	9000			
Pot Ashe ₇	7412	1273	4323	663			27774
Wheat		3360	2853				
Hemp co ₂		12945		2776			
Cordage ₈	4009	885	10310	900			
Horse H ₄	2499	2229	527				
Hempsee	9822	708	4697				
Linseed (							
Mats _o	5850	15460	18080	5010			500
Horse tai _o	45855		168				

dependence to 1805.

Denomin	5	1796	1797	1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803	1804
		59	26	39	62	23	61	65	84	65
Iron	39	296691	112260	142654	239885	112568	269709	309425	413822	278264
nail r	54	6405	560	1259	126	314	426	21		
hoop	84	2019	1002	631	503	1260	427		253	
Hemp, cle	33	182487	90424	172244	241826	16314	169995	205386	315452	187495
out	33	1870			15181	18862	51709	33791	45976	87694
hal		3808					1702	2466	639	3340
Flax, 12 h	42	1660		206			889		303	3244
Feathers	92	2164	621	168	278	178	2263	2119	1484	419
Bristles	73	226	107	474	455	612	1639	1535	1487	1569
Cordage	54	28603	13120	11059	22309	17349	49606	23074	12415	13618
Tallow	15	16821	2396	479	2937	6194	7583	464	416	1828
can	18	5094	194	1192	1433	1651	4532	1490	172	319
Linseed oil		1390	3602		19	247	2002	1579	313	
Ravenduck	68	10225	7853	14238	19952	9013	33820	10365	10651	23044
Flems	82	5743	10785	18702	20979	14774	34224	7217	13161	19648
Sail cloth	28	9328	7926	35340	22057	6624	32997	10977	32653	32190
Drillings	80	118	120	100	60	30	860	2150	1051	1090
Broad diapa	39	78714	20777	26539	88080	53416	98665	92669	239365	83686
Narrow do	30	45805	23683	3752	14093	22668	70178	39824	79278	10546
Broad linen	50			686	6443	4508	2064	11300	28395	949
Norow do	10	100		194	5499	10495	1100	25265	7400	
Printed do	50	387		400	1200				113600	
Crash	50	27000	7100	12055	35912		51000	146350		3298
Ticken	35	1202	38		136	43	37			
Table cloth			60	121	282	14	157	95	13	
Napkins			261	227	126		591	96	26	
Leather	30	11155	5500	186	332	1100	2730	1600	320	
Calf leather				2700	2472					1100
Horse hair		355	39	1077	108	60	136	495	71	5
Horse skins	56	30		45	3558	110		12000	820	84044
Squirrel skin	50	111		472	189	2050	2101	20		
Hempseed of					9			656	245	
Soap	37	3661		263	762	49	23	30	13	
Oil										
Glue						567	829	413	56	

Eu

Number of Vessels arrived at and sailed from Petersburg and Cronstadt, in the year 1804.

Names of Nations.	Wintered from 1803 to 1804.		Arrived.				Sailed.	Burthen in lasts.		Wintered from 1804 to 1805.	
	Full loaded.	Not full loaded.	Ballast & partly loaded.	Total.	Of the vessels arrived came to Petersburg.	Of those arrived.		Of those sailed.	At Cronstadt.	At Petersburg.	
Russians	9	12		4	16	9	21	1259	2360	3	1
English	4	137	32	216	385	75	382	37298	37005	6	1
Americans		18	9	39	66		66	6490	6490		
Danish	1	48	9	5	62	40	63	2783	2795		
Swedish	2	29	5	16	50	42	50	2264	2317		2
Prussian	2	44	16	18	78	71	75	4460	4098	1	4
Spanish		9			9		9	954	954		
Portuguese		13			13	3	12	983	983	1	
Lubec	4	62			62	59	62	3492	3679	2	2
Rostoc		10	3	2	15	15	15	567	567		
Dantzic		11			11	11	9	350	325		2
Hamburg				1	1	1	1	61	61		
Bremen		2			2	1	2	104	104		
Mecklenburg		12	1		13	13	13	617	618		
Oldenburg		1			1	1	1	45	45		
Total	22	408	75	301	784	341	781	61727	62401	13	12
Vessels arrived and sailed in 1803.					1096		1135				
Therefore this year, 1804, is less than the former by					312		354				

Amount of the Exports and Imports at Petersburg.

Years.	Exports.	Imports.	Gold & Silver.	Customs.
1742	2479656	2030337		
1749	3184322	2942242		
1753	3451383	3220623		
1755	4550060	3321875		
1764	5885243	5459522		
1775	8299584	6892833		
1777	12960000	8640000		
1780	10941128	8656379		
1781	12954440	9582352		
1782	11467347	12204482		
1783	10098797	11674120		
1784	12941513	12172345		
1785	13497645	10033785		
1786	13359993	11775577	25675	3337420
1787	16086799	15564553	414742	3910006
1788	20351937	15474396	350555	4035743
1789	21735663	15371105	245898	3897866
1790	21641779	22964618		4664355
1791	20040697	25140631	100968	4514745
1792	22224331	22114025	818750	4109074
1793	23757954	14580569		2795941*
1794	25565767	21741176	243210	2972101
1795	31767952	23019175	204300	3229065
1796	37110333	26355890	290796	3504643
1797	32450911	19366059	874492	3149077
1798	36552476	26175007	894156	4219325
1799	38169924	19290778		
1800	32255354	17308180	2762755	
1801	31110996	24082250	2991868	
1802	30391774	24550379	1487944	
1803	31893082	21838962	1007510	7079396
1804	29565661	20856169		6972520

* The falling off of the customs, in 1793, was owing to the great prohibition in articles of import in that year; the trade by land with China being begun. Particularly in the article of tea, the diminution of customs was great: to the trade opening in the Black Sea, and to the importation of goods, paying duty *ad valorem*, being removed chiefly to Revel and Pernau, on account of their being entered at those places at an inferior value.

The real value of the imports may be estimated at 10 per cent. more, and the exports at 10 per cent. less than as rated, about that time.

For contraband trade and jewels may be reckoned three or four millions more.

The following weights and measures are general throughout the empire, excepting in those recently acquired possessions which had their own previously, and still continue them in use; but in such cases they are reduced into those of Russia, in their official accounts and transactions.

It is the same with money in Russia; accounts are kept in rubles and copecks; one hundred of the latter make one of the former. At Petersburg, all their current transactions are in bank assignments, which, and specie, will be treated of under the head of Exchange.

At Petersburg they draw on London at three months date, at so many pence per ruble.

Hamburg, at sixty-five days date, so many shillings banco per ruble.

Amsterdam, sixty-five days date, at so many stivers per ruble.

Vienna, at so many kreutzers per ruble.

THE RUSSIAN COINS IN GOLD ARE

Imperials, of 10 rubles.

Half imperials, of 5 rubles.

IN SILVER.

Rubles of 100 copecks; half rubles, of 50 copecks; quarter rubles, of 25 copecks.

15 copeck pieces.

10 copeck pieces.

5 copeck pieces, or piat copecks.

IN COPPER.

Five copeck, 2 copeck, and 1 copeck pieces; Denuschka, or half copeck pieces; polushka, or quarter copeck pieces.

Foreign coins that are taken at St. Petersburg, and some other Russian towns, are

Dutch and other ducats, but they vary in value.

Dutch, rix, or Albert dollars, are generally valued and taken according to their weight.

Fourteen rix or Albert dollars should weigh a Russian pound.

WEIGHTS.

1 loth has 3 solotniks.

1 solotnik is divided in $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, and $\frac{1}{8}$, parts.

96 solotniks make 1 lb.

40 lb. make 1 pood, something less than $35 \frac{3}{4}$ English.

10 poods make a berquet.

6 berquets 1 last.

63 poods make 1 ton English.

46 lbs. in Petersburg make 45 lbs. in Riga.

A berquet, or 10 poods, are equal to

$350 \frac{1}{2}$ lbs. at Leipzig.

$331 \frac{1}{4}$ Amsterdam.

$356 \frac{1}{2}$ London.

$334 \frac{1}{5}$ France.

$337 \frac{3}{4}$ Hamburg.

CORN MEASURE.

1 chetwert, or cool, contains 2 osmins, 4 pajacks, 8 chetweriks, or 64 garnitzy.

16 chetwerts are reckoned a last.

9 poods of flour make a cool.

5 poods ditto, a sack.

1 osmin contains 2 pajacks, 4 chetweriks, are 32 garnitzy.

1 pajack or portion, has 2 chetweriks, or 16 garnitzy.

1 chetwerik has 8 garnitzy, and is reckoned $5 \frac{3}{4}$ bushels Winchester.

LIQUID MEASURE.

1 cask contains 40 vedros, 320 krushkas, or 3520 tscharkas.

1 vedro, or pail, contains 5 krushkas, or 88 tscharkas, or $13 \frac{1}{2}$ pinit.

1 krushka contains 11 tscharkas, or cups.

1 hogshhead of Bourdeaux wine is 19 vodros at Petersburg.

3 Russian krushkas is a gallon of beer in London.

The Russian ell or arsheen, contains 16 vershoks.

9 arsheens are 7 yards English, or the arsheen 28 inches.

A verst, or Russian mile, has 500 sashens, 1500 arsheens, or 24,000 vershoks, which is equal to 3500 geometrical feet English.

A sashen, containing 3 arsheens, or 48 vershoks, is equal to 7 English feet.

CHAPTER VI.

Of Riga. Produce in which it principally Trades : Hemp and Flax, Wood and Grain. Ships arrived, from 1703 to 1805. Specie imported. Total Exports in 1804. Imports in the same Year.

THIS, like many other cities in the Baltic, had its rise in the 12th century, about the middle of which its foundation was laid. In the year 1198 we find it noticed as a place of some importance; and particular mention is made of it in 1200, when the Bremeners are stated to have ingratiated themselves so well in Livonia, that, in order to secure their power, they threw up fortifications, according to the fashion of those times, around Riga, which they denominated the New City: in consequence, it increased so much in power and wealth, as to keep not only the Pagans in awe, but to exert its influence in civilizing them. To such an important consideration had this city arrived in 1498, that we find their Arch-Prefect, Proconsuls, and Consuls, with the greatest solemnity, making a treaty with King Henry the Seventh of England.

The subsequent vicissitudes we shall pass over, till the period that Peter the Great added it to the territories of the Russian empire. In 1704 no less than 359 ships were loaded and despatched from Riga. In the year 1710, from the circumstances of that period, only 15 ships arrived at Riga. Since then it has progressively increased and risen to its present importance, and now ranks the second city of commerce in the Russian empire. From the navigable communication it will shortly enjoy with the Black sea, and the adjacent fertile provinces that lie betwixt, it is impossible to foretel what advantages may be thrown into the lap of this city.

The source of the Düna has already been described, and its navigable communication, which is not very commodious.

Vessels even of a small size can go no higher than four or five miles above the town; it then becomes only navigable when the water is high in spring, by the melting of the snow, and in autumn by the fall of the rains, when the barks and floats of masts descend and bring down grain, hemp, and produce, impelled by the current. Barks, or small boats, embrace the same opportunity in returning back to Witepsky, loaded with salt and other articles; from whence, at the same period, by means of two small rivers, called the Bella and Poretsch, falling into the Düna, are brought down hemp, grain, and other goods; flax likewise partly comes down by the same conveyance, but a good deal by sledge-way in winter, although not so much as formerly in that manner.

There are here hemp-warehouses, which are situated on the opposite side of the river from that on which the city stands; but, on account of the rising of the river, and rapid current in spring, by the melting of the snows and frequent obstruction occasioned by the ice, the weight of water has been known to break down the banks and overflow the lower part of these warehouses, although they are now very well protected; the Dutch have generally taken the precaution of insuring the property they might have lying in these warehouses on this account, in winter and spring.

The articles of traffic are much fewer at Riga than at Petersburg, and principally consist of corn, hemp, flax, linseed, and wood, the qualities of which have been always held in higher estimation than from any other quarter of the Baltic. This may arise from the greater attention originally paid to the brack at Riga than at any other port in Russia; as well as because the provinces from whence these articles come are more fertile, and, consequently, produce a better quality: it is not, however, exactly the case with all sorts of grain.

The hemp and flax, when brought down, pass the brack; the former is assorted into the following descriptions:

Rein, or Clean

Drujana

Outshot

Drujana Polish Pass

Pass

Drujana Codille

and Codille, which comes chiefly from Lithuania,

Courland, and Russia.

The flax is of a finer harle, cleaner and better quality than from any other port in the Baltic, and consists of the following denominations: in the first place,

RAKITZER is a general name here for the finer sorts of flax, and probably derived this title from Rakischeka, a district in Lithuania, from whence all the fine flax used to come.

DRUJANA RAKITZER comes from the district of Drujana.

TIESENHAUREN RAKITZER takes its name from a family which formerly brought down the best flax, and is now picked from that which comes from the duchy of Lithuania.

MARJENBURG CLEAN, or CROWN, comes from a remote part of Livonia, and from the estates Marjenburg and Marjenhausen.

MARJENBURG CUTT is the outcast of the above in bracking.

BADSTUB PATERNOSTER is the outcast of Lithuania and Rakitzer.

DRUJANA CUTT is the refuse of Drujana Rakitzer.

RISTEN THREE BANDS is the refuse of Drujana Cutt.

HOFFS THREE BAND is the best of Livonian Three bands, both of which grew in Livonia.

The crown or best kinds remain in their original binding, of about 25lb. each bundle; but that cast-out is bound over again in bundles of about 10lb. each; and, when packed for shipping, is made up in bales of about a quarter of a ton each.

The linseed from hence, which is a particular and superior sort, is very much esteemed for sowing; of this the Dutch every year take large quantities. It mostly comes from Livonia, Courland, and Lithuania, in autumn, before the shipping season closes, being the growth of the same year: what remains behind is called *Over Sowing Linseed*, expressive of its laying over the winter, and is not taken as sowing seed, but is sold for crushing, and is the best quality for that purpose. Drujana linseed comes from the district of that name, and is only used for extracting oil, as are the supplies which come from Polotzki, Witepsky, and the adjacent governments, likewise great quantities from Russia.

There are few or no manufacturers of linens in these provinces so contiguous as to make Riga the shipping port; this branch is almost exclusively confined to Petersburg, although Riga exports some.

The grain shipped from hence, like that from Petersburg and Archangel, from its being dried, bears long voyages, on which account it is generally shipped to Spain and Portugal, or

other southern markets. Till 1803, it was the custom to reserve one-tenth of all the corn that came down the rivers, and which was intended for exportation; this was deposited in the public magazines, until the crop of the year following, when, if it had not been used in the country, it was exported, and a fresh tenth kept; by which means, there was always a portion of the grain exported, that was a year older than the rest. When, however, it was found that the new supply was likely to be abundant, this was allowed to be sent out: undoubtedly this was a wise regulation, and one that deserves to be imitated. But, in consequence of a recent regulation, a new duty is laid on all sorts of grain exported, to raise a specific fund for building new magazines, now erecting, to keep a sufficient stock on hand, in case the crops of a succeeding year should be deficient. The grain shipped from hence is the produce of Russia, the Ukraine, Poland, Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia; as also are those other articles from hence, as well as from the governments of Smolenski, Minsk, Mohilelew, Polotzk, and Lithuania; from all which districts, masts formerly, and now fir and oak timber are sent to Riga: till latterly, masts were had from Berinsky, but all these forests being exhausted of late years, they have chiefly been procured from Volhinia, where they are beginning to be scarce, so that recourse has already been had even to Austrian Galicia; this distance will, with the first cost, make them come very high at Riga, as well as all other timber; a calculation relative to this has been given under the head of wood.

It has hitherto taken two years to convey masts and timber from the forests to Riga, but it is to be hoped a single season will be sufficient, and that it will be done at less expense, when the canal is effectually executed and finished, joining the Düna and the Dneiper, otherwise, there are new channels by which masts can more easily be obtained; but it is the great attention and excellent regulations paid to the bracking system which has hitherto preserved this branch to Riga exclusively. The bracker is answerable for every tree before it is cut, on which account he examines it very minutely, mounts up and sounds it in every part, for, if once cut, it must be paid for at the price agreed upon, even if afterwards found defective; in which case, the loss falls upon the bracker, this makes him not only attentive to examine, but careful to be constantly on the safe side, and fix a low valuation. No doubt, the bracker is well paid, as he ought to be, for the risk he runs from the nature of the business; but such care being taken, there is little

chance of incurring expenses by conveying a mast, which, when arrived at its shipping port, might be found defective.

The city of Riga stands upon the eastern bank of the Düna, about ten English miles from its mouth. Like most of the rivers falling into the Baltic, it has a bar, varying according to seasons and circumstances, from twelve to fifteen feet water; by the latest accounts, there were only thirteen feet water upon the outer bar. Vessels not drawing more than from eight to nine feet water, may in general load safely up at the city, but those drawing a greater depth of water will find it safer not to make the attempt, but rather to load in the road, which is exposed to the north-west winds. The anchorage is good, yet nevertheless attended with danger, so that vessels drawing only from nine to twelve feet water are decidedly the fittest for this trade, though any sized ships may load in the roads. There are about 100 lighters, of different sorts, which have good covering, for conveying merchandise to and from the town, to such ships as require to load either in the roads, or at the Boladero, the harbour near the mouth of the river. The number of ships which have arrived at Riga at different periods in the eighteenth century, and since, are

Years.	Ships.	Years.	Ships.	British Ships.
1703	292	1793	897	
1709	225	1794	898	
1712	76	1795	704	
1720	188	1796	1032	
1730	414	1797	846	
1740	597	1798	913	
1750	447	1799	920	
1760	622	1800	867	380
1770	597	1801	1006	
1780	889	1802	1128	217
1790	729	1803	1180	311
1791	796	1804	1147	
1792	856			

Of which Ships those arrived in 1803, were

Russian Ships	88	Lubec Ships	40
English	311	Munster	56
Prussian	143	Dutch	15
Mecklenburg	63	Hamburg	12
Bremen	13	Portuguese	2
Danish	187	French	1
Swedish	249	Spanish	

The importation into Riga has always been very inconsiderable when compared to the exportation. Salt is one of the principal articles of importation for the interior; the other articles are chiefly the necessaries and trifling luxuries of life for the immediate surrounding provinces, which are chiefly imported from Hamburg, by way of Lubec. The proportion of the British trade to the whole of that at Riga with other nations was, in the year 1793,

British.	All other Nations.	Total Amount.
Imports, 219466 Rubles	1577908 Rubles	1797374
Exports, 3003956	5981972	1985928

The Importations from England have been in

Year	Rubles.	Year	Rubles.
1796	535686½	1800	715860½
1797	301683	1801	563656
1798	948149½	1802	573830
1799	842646½	1803	509624

The following shews the Importation and Exportation to and from each particular Country, for the Year 1803.

	Imports	Exports.
From and to	Rubles.	Rubles.
England	509624	4828958
France	239443	79033
Italy	18730	
Holland	75952	2405685
Spain	110508	1088415
Portugal	184137	675015
Lubec	640383	407673
Hamburg	28166	216985
Rostoc	3056	27093
Bremen	2387	84420
Sweden	189361	740884
Denmark	201730	1242664
Prussia	10622	449319
Germany	284976	
Elfsineur		195175
	2499087	12531324

The gross amount of the exportation, in 1804, was 12166912 ro. 68 co.

Money imported into Riga by sea in 1803:—ducats, 76700; dollars, 464614;—ships arrived, 1170; sailed, 1180.

Bank assignations, bills of exchange, and specie, are here articles of traffic, as much as any other sort of merchandise. The importation in Dutch ducats and dollars was, in the

Years.	Ducats.	Albert's Dollars.
1766	235052	789965 $\frac{1}{4}$
1767	372890	578648
1770	222734	517816 $\frac{3}{4}$
1771	370979	890135 $\frac{1}{2}$

That it has considerably increased, the following years will shew.

In the Year	Ducats.	Rixdollars.
1783	439111	1200722
1784	447689	1780744
1785	198232	1408665
1786	358826	822024
1787	442610	930758
1788	629107	1003430
1789	132638	656404
1790	307798	1359972
1791	209545	1251638
1792	119400	1135819
1793	81923	787844
1794	187393	1054936
1795	729220	877006
1796	539676	1195416
1797*	2400	51790
1798	8652	330477
1799	2000	461606
1800	86286	814272
1801	265732	679338
1802	130604	744741
1803	76700	464614

We find that in 1796, the importation had arrived to the amount in value of above one and a half million of rubles; but when a new regulation was made in 1797, we no longer find an account of what was imported by sea, but there is an account of what arrived by land at Polangen, the frontier post. This is a very considerable trade, and carried on chiefly by the Jews and others, from Königsberg to Riga, not only in specie, but in the negotiation and purchase of bills of exchange, in which a good deal is done with profit. Riga is the central

* From that time, by sea only; no account given of what came by land, which is now entered at Polangen.

point for the negotiations of Petersburg, Mosco, the near Russian ports, and the trade of the empire on this side; it very frequently happens, that money is drawn with greater advantage for the Petersburg merchants at Riga, than at Petersburg itself; but sometimes the reverse is the case, as the agio between the bank notes, assignations, and specie, and even between the silver ruble, ducats, and dollars, are subject to great fluctuations.

Accounts are here kept in rixdollars and ferdings, 80 of the latter to a rixdollar. The silver money here circulating, is mostly Dutch, Spanish, and some of the ecclesiastical princes in Germany, Holland ducats are at a variable exchange from 2 rixdollars 8 ferdings to 20 ferdings each, according to the demand for the provinces of Lithuania, Poland, and Mosco for the China and Persian trade. Russian money, (both bank notes and silver), circulates likewise at variable exchanges; the latter varies from 127 to 130 copecks for one rixdollar, and bank notes from 155 to 176 copecks per rixdollar.

The exchanges on Amsterdam are closed against Holland's currency, being 104 to 110 rixdollars, and even more at times for 100 Albertus rixdollars, at Riga, at 65 days date.

On Hamburg in rixdollars banco, which are sometimes at par with Albertus rixdollars of Riga, but at times it has been from 2 to 3 per cent under par, and often as much above, drawing at 65 days date.

On London, from 360 to 415 grosh per pound sterling; the grosh is a fictitious coin, and is reckoned by 90 grosh to a rixdollar; the course on London, is at 3 months.

The course in March 1803, was

Amsterdam, $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. drawers loss at 65 days date.

Hamburg, 3 per cent. drawers gain at 65 days date.

London, 388 grosh, per pound sterling, at 3 months date.

Holland ducats, 2 rixdollars 18 ferdings.

In bank notes, 176 co. per rixdollar Albertus.

Silver rubles, 130 co. per ditto.

The weights here for heavy goods go by shippounds, lis-pounds, and pounds, whereof 20lb. is a lis-pound, and 20 lis-pounds a shippound. The weight at Riga is calculated about nine per cent. lighter than the English weight. The lesser weight is 32 loth to a pound. 6 one-sixth ship lb is about a ton, or 2466 lb. Riga make at 9 per cent. 2262 lb. English.

45 lb. Riga give	46 lb. Russian
13	11 Amsterdam
38	35 English
22	19 Hamburg.

The measures for grain are, wheat and barley, 48 loops* to a last, equal to about $11\frac{1}{4}$ quarters Winchester measure. Of rye, 45 loops. Of oats, 60 loops are reckoned to a last. Of salt, the measure is larger, and goes by lasts and barrels, of which latter, 18 are to a last, and about $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons Liverpool white salt produce here a last.

2 Riga ells make	1 yard English
13	10 Russian arsheens
5	4 Brabant ells
34	27 ells Amsterdam
35	27 Flemish ells in Amsterdam
23	22 ells Hamburg.
12 Riga feet make	11 feet English.

* A loop is reckoned $1\frac{7}{8}$ bushels.

A List of Goods exported from Riga in 1804, to all Countries.

To	Rein and Drájuna Hemp.	Outshot do.	Pafs do.	Codille.	Rakitzer and Clean Marienburg Flax.	Cut Paternoffer and Hoffs. three-band ditto.	Riften and Livonia three-band ditto.	Flax Tow.	Tobacco.	Tallow.	Hemp Oil.	Potafhes.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Sewing Linfeed.	Crushing do.	Hempfeed.	Square Balks.	Mafts, Spars, and Bowfpirts.	Wainfcot Logs.	Dutch and French Wood.	Pipe ftaves.	Deals.
England	51517	3703	9855	4145	34889	8975	1951	364	2441	127	2	780	300	6226	1576	23320	38106	130	29729	5206	15891	1	611631	
Holland	658	135	643	1909	65	5		6				48	113			12012	92777	15959	9257	1251	192	315	118	
France	6770		437	221												3975	11882		1563	327				
Spain	2452	463	265	85	17035	2459	295	7			10		3090	615	97				2070	694				
Portugal	3967	1372	1135	247	3706	1356	506	4					1605									74	112	
Italy					623	1095	12																	
Sweden	5433	884	355	227	1534	622	92	171	61	17	209		28	3106	28	2031	1088	228		922	76	40	100	
Denmark	6079	1597	2524	4708	3104	2206	301	616	678		41	487	397	2307	173	1385	2021	202	1190					
Hamburg																								
and Bremen			60											497		2602	118							
Prussia																						29	13	
Lubeck	1540	765	1623	1763										489	30	12806	13810	1954	449	4111				
and Roffoc	522	118	377	2687									10	1957	30	9763		77		5			2	
Total	78938	9037	17274	6052	61713	17480	3231	1180	1575	2818	2264	338	5603	15215	1934	72894	159802	18550	44258	12519	16159	451	4042320	

N. B. To all Places.—Iron, 94 fhb.—Sail cloth, 3018 pieces.—Ravenducks, 2670 pieces.—Flems and other Linens, 1354 pieces.

LIST OF GOODS IMPORTED INTO RIGA, In 1804.

Allum	lbs.	47025	Hardware, scythes	poods.	169010
Arrack and rum	bottles	7754	Indigo	lbs.	6626
Brandy, French	hhd.	117	Lead		35899
Brimstone	lbs.	9579	shot		51452
Bricks	mil.	420	Linen	arsh.	5066
Cottons, printed	arsh.	1193	cambric		1087
pique		2141	lawn, French		271
chintz		52020	do. handkerchiefs	doz.	136
calico		12137	Meat, salt	lbs.	4643
muslin		10724	pork		5238
plush		3858	sausages		3486
fustian		1280	Oil, olive		50309
fattinet		1806	Florence		8091
nankeen		12987	Oysters	ank.	126
muslin handkerchiefs	doz.	138	Paper	reams.	1918
cotton	do.	704	Pearl barley	lbs.	143288
Clocks	pieces.	834	grits	chts.	136
Coals	lafts	81	Rice	lbs.	169114
Coffee	lbs.	403170	Spice, ginger		11759
Cheese, common		242975	cinnamon		618
Parmesan		1658	nutmegs		231
Corks		22825	cloves		185
Copper		18885	mace		123
Chocolate		680	pepper		58210
Fish, herrings	casks	16370	saffron		367
stock fish	lbs.	23497	cardamum		419
anchovies		5147	pimento		9630
Fruit, lemons	poods.	673635	Saltpetre		5557
oranges		57225	Salt, Liverpool	poods.	345414
do. Seville		5475	rock		126450
apples		591	Portuguese		159887
pears		329	French		19098
plumbs, dried	lbs.	168749	Spanish		319768
apples and pears	do.	2438	Luneburg		71
almonds		48230	Silk, spun	lbs.	1486
raisins		48653	Silks	rubles.	9631
currants		25387	Soap	lbs.	3621
capers		4709	Steel		9604
olives		4527	Stockings, silk	doz.	18
figs		4688	common		404
cherries		8452	Sugars, refined	lbs.	433028
Furniture	rubles.	24005	molasses		1037261
Glass, window	chefts.	185	lump		583128
Hops	lbs.	30533	candy		34671
Hardware	rubles.	58610	raw		546794
tin-plates	sheets.	110585	fyrup		22152
wire-iron	lbs.	13797	Tiles	mil.	205
nails		13255	Tar and pitch	casks.	13

Tea	104	Woollens, camblets	64
Tobacco, canister	lbs. 333	calimancoes	1113
common	112313	baife	28723
roll	52314	kerfeymers	5797
rappee	4309	cloths	16511
Tin	6994	everlastings	384
Thread	27	White-lead	lbs. 466854
Toys and trinkets	rubles. 2864	Vinegar	hhds. 661
Watches	poods. 63	champagne	bottles. 5546
Wines, Spanish	hhds. 501	Vitriol	lbs. 23462
Portuguese	259		
Rhenish	117	Foreign Coin imported.	
Mosfel	71	Ducats	20590
French	3478	Rix-dollars Alberts	196560
Woollens, tammies	arsh. 345		
shalloons	5706	Total value imported in rubles	2456287
ferge	168		

Ships arrived.

British	338
Swedish	201
Prussian	170
Danes	153
Russian	110
Foreign of different nations	181
	1153

CHAPTER VII.

Of the different Russian Ports in the Baltic, Fredericksham, Wyburg, Narva, Revel, Hapsal, Arensburg, Pernau, Windau and Liebau, with Details of their Exports, Imports, and general Trade. Of the Frontier Trade, and that between the Baltic and the Black Sea.

THOUGH the Russian trade in the Baltic is chiefly carried on from Petersburg and Riga, yet the other ports are all partaking of the general spirit of commerce which government inspires into the people. Their present state may be learnt from the following account.

FREDERICKSHAM.

The river Kymene here forms the boundary betwixt Russia and Sweden, as before observed. It is now a fortified town, although only a small village when taken from the Swedes by the Russians.

Its trade was always trifling, and when the restriction took place on the exportation of deals and timber in general it experienced a check.

Its commercial concerns are regulated by those of Petersburg, where its negotiations and money concerns are transacted.

The following years will shew the amount of the trade of this place.

Exports, Imports, &c.

<i>Ships arrived.</i>	<i>Years.</i>	<i>Exports. Rubles.</i>	<i>Imports. Rubles.</i>	<i>Customs.</i>
17	1791	34875	39612	9361
	1792	44129	161492	
16	1793	31373	27939	
19	1794	37307	23543	
10	1795	26018	12500	
26	1796	68786	30968	10767
24	1797	62623	27306	7821
14	1798	41273	30426	11151
	1799	15009	14025	2872
18	1800	78358	26809	18183
5	1801	134317	11949	6051

WYBURG,

Upon the Gulph of Finland, the capital of the province of that name and a fortified town. It lays about twelve miles from the sea, from whence is a very intricate navigation: at the town there are from ten to twelve feet depth of water, but large ships must remain about nine miles below.

Its principal trade is in the exportation of deals, battens, and wood; and its import, salt, herrings, &c. It suffered for a time by the restriction on the exportation of timber.

Its negotiations and money transactions are done at Petersburg; its weights and measures are regulated by those of the capital in all commercial concerns.

The following will shew the amount of the trade of the place, and the number of ships.

State of Exports and Imports, &c.

Years.	Exports. Roubles.	Imports. Roubles.	Ships arrived.	Of which English.
1795	70344	113034	30	22
1796	138159	139310	73	34
1797	154132	95799	78	34
1798	104625	124967	02	25
1799	16988	25895		
1801	121402	71607	50	24
1802	171665	82878	04	44
1103	196583	128545	58	65
1104		917028	59	29

The value of exports last year in wood was 115,560 rubles.

NARVA

Is situated upon the river Narova, about nine miles from its mouth, which falls into a bay in the Gulph of Finland, where is a bar formed by a sand bank. Large ships must lay at anchor in the roads to load and unload by craft; small vessels, drawing seven feet water, may load near the town; in the roadstead is tolerable anchorage,* except when the wind is northerly.

This place was one of the Hans Towns, and was that by which a part of their trade was carried on to Novgorod. It is

* In the year 1800, when an embargo was laid on British shipping at this port, many cut their cables and stood out to sea, which provoked the emperor so much, that he ordered one ship, secured in the roads, to be burnt, which was accordingly done.

rendered famous by a battle betwixt Charles XII. of Sweden, and Peter the Great, of Russia, fought in its vicinity, and for the celebrated water-fall, a little above the town. In the centre of which are built saw-mills for manufacturing deals and battens. The timber is floated down the river, being never taken out of the water till it comes under the very teeth of the saws.

The obstacles thrown in the way of the interior trade, by the cataract in the Narova river at the city, and likewise by the bar below it, were always unfavourable to its commerce; however, it enjoyed a considerable share till the establishment of Petersburg; but no sooner was the foundation of that city laid, (from whence it is about 105 miles), than it lost nearly all its commercial consequence.

At present, its principal imports are salt, herrings, sugar, coffee, tobacco, and other articles of trifling importance, for its own consumption, and the limited interior trade.

Its principal exports are now almost confined exclusively to deals, battens, and barks, and a little flax and hemp.

Their bill-negotiations are all transacted at Petersburg, where it would be better for merchants in England to fix a credit, than to be drawn upon direct; for, as they must at Narva be governed by the Petersburg exchange, where they send their bills to be negotiated, they fix a higher rate than that course, in order to indemnify themselves in case of a rise at Petersburg. Merchants should have their money remitted from thence.

Their weights were shippounds, lispounds, and pounds, but now they are falling into the Petersburg mode.

The following table will shew the amount of the trade of each year at this place.

Years.	Ships.	Imports.		Exports.	
		Ro.		Ro.	
1789		81487		421872	
1790		177302		541274	
1791		137631		721375	
1792		165196		536966	
1793	71	152938		238554	
1794	139	104935		457315	
1795	33	111689		321401	
1796	79	148526		688138	
1797	107	121016		526784	
1798		150222		631439	
1799		61022		556540	
1800		101883		1130739	
1801		116409		807239	
1802		101701		765378	
1803		155940		924417	
1804	74	43278		527332	

REVEL,

Supposed to be founded in the year 1219, is the capital of the government of that name, situated upon the south shore of the Gulph of Finland, about 260 miles west of Petersburg.

This city was once the emporium of the Hanseatic League for the trade to Novgorod, but it was removed, in 1558, to Narva. Its harbour ranks amongst the first in the gulph, and contains the only government dock-yard for laying up the ships of war, except Cronstadt. There is a sufficient depth of water near the town for the largest ships, which may work into the roads with almost any wind. Revel, too, has this advantage over most of the Baltic ports; that, when they are choaked up with floating ice, or fast altogether by it, its harbour is not so soon frozen, on account of having no fresh water river falling into it, and having a sufficient depth of water. From these advantages, at the close of the year, vessels, with cargoes intended for Petersburg, put into Revel; and, when the winter sets in, they have their merchandise conveyed by sledge-way, at a reasonable rate, to Petersburg, Mosco, or other places.

There is a considerable trade at Revel. In the year 1790, the amount of the duties on imports amounted nearly to four millions. In the year 1792, about 200 ships arrived, chiefly loaded with merchandise for the interior, very few procured back freight: indeed, as the principal export is corn, unless there is a demand from some of the European markets, the trade must be limited in that article. The restrictions issued in 1793, diminished the import trade throughout Russia, particularly at this place. The new tariff, in 1797, gave also a considerable check, and reduced it the following, and second year after, very low indeed, compared to former years, and to what it is at present.

As Revel has no interior navigable communication, grain is chiefly brought to market in winter by sledge-way, or by ordinary land-carriage, when they cannot have that advantage.* The grain shipped from this place is chiefly to Sweden, Denmark, Portugal, the southern markets, and Holland; to the latter place for the distilleries. Very little grain, from its inferior quality, is at any period shipped to Great Britain.

Lubec enjoys a considerable share of the trade of this place, having nearly one-half, and nearly monopolized the whole car-

* Sledge-ways and land-carriage are different, the one alluding to the mode in winter, and the other in summer.

rying trade. By fixing high freights there, it induced some of the Revel merchants to build a few ships, and one house even in 1779 had six; this was the cause of reducing the rates.

The road, or anchorage, at this place has deep water; but the most commodious harbour is one, formerly called Rogherwick, but now Baltic port, situated about 35 miles west of Revel, where ships sometimes meet with good shelter, and it is capable of being made one of the best ports for men of war in the Baltic.

At Revel, many of the old customs prevail, but their monies, weights, and measures, may be considered the same as at Petersburg, where, or at Riga, they must have their bills negotiated, and from either or both places receive their money; the same advantages may be derived here as those which have been mentioned at Narva.

The Nations which have imported or exported here, in 1804, are

	Imports.	Exports.
	Ro.	Ro.
Denmark	59957	112537
Lubec	798619	78794
Sweden	54443	57688
Holland	9027	13794
Lisbon		14255
Rostoc		6772
England	752990	
France	3320	
Portugal	12410	
Prussia	5352	
Spain	4501	
Rubles	1700619	28340

The Exports of Revel are chiefly in Grain, which were, in Chetwerts,

	1801	1802	1803
Wheat	897	414	1038
Rye	18624	35477	18684
Barley	304	19	1546

The Amount of the Imports and Exports in the following Years were,

Years.	Ships arrived.	Exports.	Imports.	Customs.
1793	71	109897	1477260	297823
1794	90	152000	1747403	259723
1795	70	417349	1765294	250875
1796	155	657468	1887979	270930
1797	118	359533	1506814	207773
1798		346589	1046234	105779
1799		417108	795775	68651
1801		313955	1105959	136109
1802		341826	1417697	140006
1803		307665	2214789	308855
1804		283840	1700619	485939

HAPSAL.

This is a small place at the west side of the government of Revel, just turning round out of the Gulph of Finland, or rather betwixt the continent and the Isle of Dago.

What little business is done here is chiefly with Sweden, Lubec, and Holland, in eight or ten small vessels annually, which, on account of a sand bank, cannot come within two miles of the town.

Its* trade consists chiefly in the export of grain from the government of Revel, and the island of Dago, its imports are principally by way of Revel.

In the year 1773 and 1777, its trade amounted to, in imports, 17,598 rubles; in exports, 17,500.

In the year 1797, arrived five ships:—Imports, 12,536 rubles; exports, 9,096.

ARENSBURG.

The capital of the island of Oesel, which is reckoned in the government of Revel. The trade of this place is chiefly carried on by Lubec, Sweden, and Holland, in small vessels, of which from 20 to 30 arrive annually; and they must anchor at about five miles from the town, at a place called the Kettle; their cargoes are loaded and unloaded by small craft or prams, to and from the town.

The trade of this island is chiefly in grain, producing annually for exportation 1000 to 1400 lasts of rye and barley, (prin-

* The money transactions and negotiations are chiefly done at Riga.

cipally the former), and some little wheat. The quality of the rye is reckoned nearly equal to that shipped from Riga, and the barley superior.

Its trade on the average returns from 1774 to 1777, for one year, was, imports, 17,758 rubles; exports, 33,895. In the year 1797, so much had their agriculture and industry improved, that 29 vessels sailed from this port, and the trade was in imports, 30,266 rubles; exports, 111,678.

It is the custom in this island for the farmers to pay their rents on the 1st of March; at which time there is a general settlement made of all their accounts, for paying mortgages, bonds, promissory notes, and interest. To meet their respective engagements at this period, their produce is all sold, either for ready money, or to be paid for on that day throughout the island; at least by those whose necessities make it expedient; so that the best time for making purchases there is before the 1st of March.

Of what little hemp or flax is bought, the payments, either the whole or part, are made in December and January, though sometimes on the 1st of March. The negotiation of their bills and money transactions are chiefly done at Riga, and from Pernau, to make advantage in the exchange, the same system as at Revel, applies here.

PERNAU

Is situated in the government of Riga, on an arm in the N. E. of the gulph of Livonia; the town stands upon the river Pernava, which there falls into the bay. Vessels drawing not more than six feet water can come up to the city, but those of a larger size must lay in the roads, from one to two miles below the town, and have their cargoes loaded or unloaded by small craft.

It is in contemplation to make the communication perfectly navigable betwixt the Peipus lake and this port.

The produce exported from Pernau is chiefly brought by sledge-way, and consists principally of grain; about 2500 lasts of rye, barley, and oats, are, during the winter, stored in proper ware-houses; and, in years of a plentiful crop, sometimes they have exported near 6000 lasts of those three articles, and not more than 200 lasts of wheat, which, as well as the hemp and flax, and other articles, in their qualities are not reckoned equal to those from Riga or Petersburg, and it is certain they do not clean it so well.

All goods, however, for exportation, such as flax, hemp, wax,

and linseed; and herrings imported, are examined. They export of standard deals, annually about 350,000 fathoms, each fathom six feet English.

They have here Marienburg clean and cut flax, risten threebands, flax codille, good and ordinary Russia and Livonia pass hemp, of sowing linseed about 4000 barrels, and for crushing about 1000 lasts, are annually exported: the former are subject to the approval of sworn brackers, who are likewise again under the control of the magistrates of the place, and punishable for any neglect of duty.

There are annually employed from 70 to 100 sail of ships of different nations from Pernau, amongst which are generally from 12 to 20 English; seven vessels belong to owners at Pernau, and are chiefly employed in the Lubec trade; the remainder belong to the Swedes and Dutch.

This port formerly had its share, like Revel, in the import trade, but the regulations of 1797 and of 1799 put an end to it: prohibited goods, when found, are confiscated, and the owner is obliged to pay the amount in value, besides a penalty for the offence.

Their money accounts are kept in silver rubles and copecks, and their purchases paid for in silver money, also in copper and bank assignations, but at a fluctuating agio from 30 to 50 per cent.

They draw on London at three months,
Hamburg at sixty-five days date,
Amsterdam ditto;

They send their drafts for negotiation either to Petersburg or Riga, chiefly the latter place, and receive specie, on account of the greater abundance found there; but it would be more advantageous for the merchants to have their money drawn in at Petersburg or Riga, at the exchange of the day, and specie sent; on account of the higher rate the merchants at Pernau must fix to cover themselves against the chance of any loss by a rise at Riga; and, if a fall, it is so much more advantageous to them, and consequent loss to the British merchant.

The weights are of the same denomination as at Riga; 100lb. is reckoned 92lb. English. The last, for grain, contains 48 loops Riga measure, which is calculated to produce 90 bushels Winchester, when it is calculated to contain 2178 cubic inches.

The salt measure is rather larger than that of Riga; $3\frac{1}{4}$ tons of Liverpool rock salt they reckon one last; and $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 tons of white salt is also reckoned one last.

The exportation and importation were in the following years: The average betwixt the years 1773 and 1777 was, the former rubles 187,732, and the latter 73,934; and in the following years, except the last, will be seen the increase.

Ships arrived.	Years.	Ro.	Exports.	Imports.	Customs.
	1788	—	508920	96300	
	1789	—	447889	107408	
	1790	—	378634	241856	
	1791	—	382855	1399342	356382
	1792	—	433505	2354360	
43	1793	—	189131	899615	
66	1794	—	334800	926174	
81	1795	—	357610	1275409	
118	1796	—	768004	1637389	330906
112	1797	—	729698	932800	239096
	1798	—			
	1799	—	665616	510990	
61	1804	—	64124	142300	99776

Account of Goods imported at Pernau, 1804

	Rubles.
Cottons	2800
Linens	3500
Silks	11900
Woollens	13000
Hardware	2200
Salt, English	27000
Herrings	10100
Sugars	17000
Coffee	3600
Paper	2800
Tobacco	1500
Clocks, watches, &c.	1800
Wine, brandy, and rum	23800
Fruit	8500
Rice and pearl barley	2500
Spice	500
Porcelain, &c.	800
Mathematical instruments, &c.	1900
Books, &c.	700
Drugs, &c.	6400
Total	142300

Account of Goods exported from Pernau, 1804.

	Rubles.
Corn and brandy	6500
Flax	547044
Ditto codille	8000
Corn	26500
Hemp	27000
Wood	11300
Shamoy leather	550
Sowing linseed	10000
Sail cloth	260
Tea	40
Wax, yellow	3660
Sundries	33045

Total 673899

Customs collected on Exports and Imports, Rubles 99776 43 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ships arrived in all 61
failed 59

C O U R L A N D.

WINDAU

Stands at the mouth of the river of that name, which runs into Courland, but is not navigable for any other purpose than that of floating timber down, in the export of which its trade chiefly consists. In the two following years the trade of this port stood thus:

		Imported.	Exported.	Customs.
1796 arrived 69 ships	Ro.	104628	642471	25346
1797	53	92774	299993	22148

For other particulars see Liebau, the principal sea-port of the province.

LIEBAU,

Although it has no interior communication, either by navigable rivers or canals, it is nevertheless the principal port or place of trade in Courland. Vessels drawing from 10 to 12 feet English measure can at all times pass the bar at the mouth of the harbour. Heavy gales of south-west wind will sometimes accumulate the sand on it, which is again taken away by the current, arising from the springs in the lake and the small rivulet which runs into it.

The harbour of Liebau, though it may now be called a lake, was formerly an arm of the sea; it was only in the year 1680 that its formation was begun by sinking prams filled with stones: an annual revenue was raised to complete this work by the then dukes of Courland, sometimes amounting to near 40,000 dollars, but afterwards it was chiefly applied to other purposes, leaving but sufficient to keep the harbour in repair, which is still attended with some expense.

Vessels which cannot run into the harbour must lay in the roads, one to two English miles below it, where they are loaded or unloaded by craft.

These roads are much exposed to winds in nearly all directions: the road has good anchoring ground, yet the bottom is stony, from which ships' cables will suffer in boisterous weather.

The city of Liebau has drawn its articles of exportation from all the adjacent provinces under the Russian dominions since

1795, when it became subject to it; since then it appears not to have had so much trade: indeed the facilities given to the other Russian ports, by inland navigation, makes it unfavourable to Liebau, which cannot avail of water communication to other places, but carries on its trade by land-carriage, or in winter by sledge-way, as far as from 150 to 200 English miles distance. The lake, or harbour, serves only to convey wood for building, firing, and other domestic purposes, having no exportation in that branch, which is chiefly at Windau.

It will appear that the trade of Liebau was formerly more considerable, before it came under the Russian government, both in imports and exports; indeed, its situation at that time betwixt Russia and Prussia was found prejudicial to both Memel and Riga, as well to the commerce of the two governments, from the clandestine trade carried on. The conveniences of warehouses, both for foreign and their own trade, and the reasonable charges were a great encouragement.

The common rate of storage of corn is about 10 ferdings per last; and hemp, flax, and other articles, which pass through the scale, are 4 ferdings per shippound.

There is some shipping belonging to the native merchants of this place, from 50, 80, to 100 corn lasts each, which are well adapted for the harbour, and chiefly employed to Lubec and other Baltic ports.

We shall give an account of the general exportation in 1803, and all the importation of that year into and from Liebau, which will be found to consist of such articles as are chiefly from Riga, with the exception of wood. The sowing linseed is reckoned good, and the crushing seed productive in oil. The flax, however, from that place is not so much esteemed in England, but is better adapted for the Portugal and Spanish markets. Hemp is chiefly what is called Pass, which has a strong staple, but not so well cleaned as that from Riga, although they are now improving in both respects. Holland has the principal share of the corn trade of this place; the quality of its rye is considered particularly productive in their distilleries. It is only in scarce and dear years that any grain is exported from thence to England: a good deal of grain is exported from hence to the southern markets, on account of its being prepared to bear the voyage better than that from Dantzic, and many other ports.

They have sworn brackers here, under nearly the same regulations as at Riga, for the hemp, flax, some other articles exported, and for herrings imported; and all bargains are made

through the medium of sworn brokers, who are recommended by the merchants, and afterwards, if they are approved, confirmed in the appointment by the magistrates.

The Dutch formerly engrossed the greatest share of the trade of this place, but now the English have lately embarked more in it: perhaps this was first occasioned by the war, in which the Dutch commerce has suffered so much, and by the interruption of their communication with the Mediterranean. This latter cause has induced them to import considerable quantities of salt from Liverpool, which they used to have from Terrevegia, Ivica, Trappani, Caglaiari, Allematte, and St. Ubes, which they reckon the best; the next, Lisbon, Cadiz, St. Lucar, Ivica, and Alicant. Fishery-salt fetches six and seven rix dollars more than fine white salt.

All duties or customs are now the same here as throughout the other ports of Russia, and are paid in bank notes at a fixed value; but the charges, &c. of less consequence, are paid in Alberts rix dollars, and smaller silver.

All merchandise, on which the duties have been duly paid at their custom-house here, are afterwards free throughout the whole empire.

Their books and accounts are kept the same way as at Riga, in Alberts rix dollars, and ferdings, or grosh: four orts (or quarts) make one Alberts dollar, and eighty ferdings the same value.

All bargains for merchandise are made in Alberts dollars; no other coin is here in circulation, except Dutch specie dollars, passing by the name of Alberts dollars; these are imported either immediately from Holland or Konigsberg. The old style is here continued, and they draw on

London, at three months date, in pounds sterling.

Amsterdam, at forty-one or seventy-two days date, in Holland's currency.

Hamburg, at thirty, forty-five, and sixty-five days date, in

Hamburg banco, in much the same way as Riga.

Their bills are sent for negotiation principally to Konigsberg, receiving specie in return; sometimes to Riga, for which generally $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. is allowed for commission, brokerage, postage, &c. For the fluctuations of exchange, the merchants of this place naturally are governed in fixing a sufficient high rate to cover all risks, although it will sometimes be against them.

Here the same weights and measures are used as those at Riga; the only difference is, that one last of rye, Liebau mea-

sure, contains 48 loops, that of Riga only 45; other kinds of grain are the same.

Salt $2\frac{7}{8}$ to 3 tons, or 115 to 120 bushels from

Liverpool, makes	1 last here.
6 salm of Trappani and Cagliari	1 ditto.
$4\frac{1}{3}$ movy at St. Ubes	1 ditto.
$4\frac{1}{2}$ movy at Lisbon	1 ditto.
1 last at Cadiz	$\frac{2}{3}$ ditto.
12 herring barrels of coals	1 ditto.

The first year of the trade of Liebau under the Russian government was

Ships.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Customs.
267	1796	958,681	2,231,420	159,388
268	1797	904,422	1,825,621	222,951
262	1803	875,493	2,310,697	

ACCOUNT

Of the Exportation of the principal Produce from Liebau, in 1803.

Bees wax	poods 230	Grain, pease	48 last 3 lps.
Tanned skins		Linsfeed for sowing	
ducks	decks 709	Exported in the spring	
calves	14488	To Bremen	5257 barrels
neats	678	England	24
Flax of the best fort	35 poods 18lb.	Sweden	28
second do.	190 34	Lubec	102
third do.	130,506 11	Stettin	
Butter	5144 23	Total	5411
Soap, Ruffia			
Beef, salted	146 30	In the Autumn,	
Hare skins, white	decker	To Holland	100 barrels
grey	270	England	24
Hemp of the third fort,	32976 pds. 4lb.	Sweden	
Feathers		Lubec	409
common goose	639 pds. 1lb.	Stettin	1460
down		Total	1993
quills	853,000 ps.		
Sail-cloth		The value of the whole ex-	
Linsfeed for crufhing	741 lafts	portations amounts to 2,319,697 rubls	
of the inferior kind	730	The number of ships and	
Hempfeed	180 lafts 9 lps.	vessels sailed from the har-	
Tobacco in leaves	509 pds. 38lb.	bour are	Foreign 247
Grain			Native 15
wheat	994 last—lps.		
rye	5865 28		Total 262
barley	4835 8		
oats	927 30		

ACCOUNT

Of the principal Articles of Importation into Liebau in 1803.

Cotton, raw	13 pds. 10lb.	Rice	1185 pds. 7lb.
yarn	58 1	Pearl barley	538 20
Paper, folio paper	132 reams	Cloth, fine	2361 arsheens
letter paper	87	coarse	12069
Wine, French	435 hhd. 5 ank.	Bays	21681
Spanish	53 3	Lemon and orange peel	316 pds. 1lb.
Portuguese		Dyer's wool	141 1
Rhenish	25 4	indigo	37 23
Champaign	891 bottles	Sago	39 7
Burgundy	132	Soap, Venice	19 27
Waters, Seltzer, &c.	2716	Drugs	604
Mustard-seed	34 pds. 23lb.	Meat, smoke	
Logwood, Fernambuck	286 34	Gun powder	52
Guinea redwood	43 20	Quicksilver	3 12
logwood	526 34	Copper	
Iron wares,—scythes	20,400 pcs.	Brass	8
white plate	57 casks	wire	
nails	135 pds. 16lb.	Fish, Dutch herring	21 barrels.
needle wire	253 25	Swedish	651 lasts 9 do.
Lime, flaked	54 last	anchovy	14 pds. 20 lb.
unflaked	2	Salt petre	11 30
Coffee	2373 pds. 7lb.	Sugar, refined	5246
Clinkers	157000 pieces	melasses	5773 21
Tiles	41500	candy	586 36
Whetstones, common	500	in loaves	950 20
Spicery,		fyryp	836 35
pepper	426 pds. 33lb.	Salt, Portuguese	979 last 13
English spice	156 18	French	274 6
mace	1 17	English	585 11
nutmeg	1 28	Luneburg	
saffron	28	Cheese, Dutch and English	342 pds. 32lb.
cinnamon	2 36	Brimstone	90 13
cloves	27	Lead	631 17
ginger, white	255 11	Small shot	655 27
brown	83 5	Steel	102 3
oris root	10 pds. 34lb.	Tobacco in rolls	756
cumin	48 28	Oysters	104 barrels
Fruits,		Vinegar and cyder	225 hhd. 5 ank.
lemons	408 boxes	Hops	183 poods
China oranges	58	Tea	
oranges	10	Chocolate	4 pds. 14lb.
apples	60 barrels	Woolen yarn	17lb.
lemon juice	20 hhd.	Sewing silk	5 pds. 9lb.
Dried fruits,		Oil	362 32
prunes	1492 pds. 38lb.	Rape oil	66 10
raisins	1280	The value of the whole im-	
almonds	534 11	portation amounts to	875,493 rubles.
figs	94 15	Vessels arrived,	
currants	223 27	Foreign	247
chests		Native	14
olives	47 38		
apricots	25 37	Total	261

Of the Russian Frontier Trade, betwixt the Baltic and Black Seas.

To form a more accurate idea of the general trade of European Russia, we shall shew its commerce by land, and the rivers on the frontiers of Prussia, Austria, and Turkey; giving the particulars of each, to form a complete chain from the White sea to the Baltic, and from thence to that of the Black sea; a description of which will likewise follow.

In the year 1797, the trade of Russia, on the frontiers of Prussia and Austria, was as follows:

PRUSSIAN FRONTIERS.

	Importation.	Exportation.
	Rubles.	Rubles.
Preborou	68,968	466,219
Jurburg	179,871	126,861
Grodno	42,693	235,524
Brezecz	58,807	104,517
Jalowka	116,340	44,945
Polangen	42,167	51,936
Punsk	78,781	9,770
Staigin	61,200	12,137
Total	648,831	1,051,911

AUSTRIAN FRONTIERS.

	Importation.	Exportation.
	Rubles.	Rubles.
Radzivil	522,157	201,075
Volotshinsk	358,078	65,688
Volodimir	14,163	314,441
Hussjatin	15,058	10,889
Total	909,458	592,094

In the year 1802, the amount of the inland trade, at the frontier places on the side of Prussia and Austria together, has increased to amount in value in imports to ro. 10,572,345, exports 4,487,995.

The inland trade, at the frontiers on the side of Turkey in 1797 and 1802, was as follows:

TURKISH BORDERS.

	Importation.	Exportation.
Jampol	ro. 1,191,087	ro. 126,032
Dubossar	994,398	83,193
Schwanez	15,321	20,109
Mohileff	2,682	13,458
Total	2,203,489	242,794
And in 1802 it amounted to	2,471,867	779,064

CHAPTER VIII.

Of the Black Sea and Sea of Azoph. Their Ports. Their Trade. Short History and present State. Ships employed in the Coasting Trade on those Seas. Of Odessa, its Foundation, Localities, rapid Rise, and present State. Table of the Imports and Exports by Way of those Seas. Trade of those Seas with Turkey. Turkey Trade with England by Means of the Black Sea.

THIS sea lies betwixt Europe and Asia, and may be said to be near the centre of the great continent; on the north it is bounded by the Crimea and Russia, Georgia and Circassia on the east, Natoli and Asia Minor on the south, Romania, Bulgaria, and Bessarabia on the west. It communicates with the sea of Azoph by a small strait, called Yenikale, upon the eastern coast of the Crimea, on which are placed the strong fortresses of Kertsch and Yenikale, which command it. The river Don falls into the Azoph, and the considerable rivers of the Dnieper, Bong, Dniester, and the great Danube, fall into the Black sea, which communicates with the Mediterranean by the Dardanelles, out of which sets a pretty strong current; on which account vessels are frequently detained a considerable time, or till a westerly breeze starts, before they can get into the Black sea.

This sea will furnish those articles, through the Dardanelles, which England receives by the Baltic; therefore the trade of the Black sea can never be one to be cultivated by this country: the voyage through the Marmora into the ports of the Black sea will occupy nearly as long a period as one to Madras; and so long as the facilities are promoted, to convey the produce by the interior canals to the rivers falling into the Baltic, there never can be a trade carried on from Great Britain direct; her manufactures being in small compass and of greater value, will too be conveyed by the way of the Baltic. Indeed, when the canals of the interior, communicating with that sea, are com-

pleted, Great Britain might carry on her Turkey trade through that channel in time of war, rather than the circuitous one through the Mediterranean, loaded with heavy freights and high insurance, besides detention for convoy.

Though Great Britain cannot derive any benefit from the local situation of the Black sea direct, yet some few observations naturally arise on the subject, which are not a little interesting in many points of view.

As Russia extends in civilization and refinement, her wants will increase, and her commerce extend; the soil and climate around this sea will derive every assistance from so great a power, and the encouragement given to commercial adventure in general, which is so much fostered as it is, by his present Imperial Majesty, that it may probably soon become very great, and be the cause of giving an entire new turn, not only to the commerce of the Baltic, but, most likely, to the politics of Europe. We have seen a wonderful change in Russia, in a short time, in transplanting its trade from the White to the Baltic sea; its next flight may, in the course of events and a short time, be to the Black sea.

The uncommon attention given by the Russian government to promote the trade of the Black sea, and establish the port of Odessa, is a good deal similar to that of Peter the Great, in the building of Petersburg, and the making of Sebastopol, a royal dock, and sufficiently proves the great importance attached to the situation and commerce in this quarter by Russia; we shall therefore give a few details of the rise, present state, and privileges granted to Odessa.

ODESSA

Is situated on a bay formed by the Black sea, thirty miles distant from the mouth of the Dniester, and sixty from that of the river Dnieper, called by the Turks, when in their possession, Koadjabeg,* and, so late as 1792, its shores were a mere plain. It is a secure and convenient bay, with a great depth of water; consequently, it is seldom closed by the frost, which attracted the attention of the Russian government when it came into their possession, so that it is likely to become a second Petersburg.

So late as the year 1795, only a few houses were built, and almost no regular business done: in that year, the first of its

* Or Gadschibeg.

traffic, 35 small vessels arrived, and 30 sailed, the customs amounted only to 4,360 ro. 88 $\frac{3}{4}$ co.—the following year, 87 vessels arrived, and 63 sailed; its imports and exports, at that time, will be seen in a table hereafter, amongst the other ports of the Black sea. In the year 1799, it had already made progress in buildings, as the following state will shew, being then

5 Churches	4 Lime-kilns
1 Chapel	6 Wind-mills
1 Synagogue	18 Wells in houses
506 Houses of stone	12 Public wells
233 Earth pits (semlankie)	13 Fountains
591 Huts	6 Distilleries
111 Cellars with passages to streets	5 Breweries
36 Warehouses	5 Soap manufactures
3 Brick-kilns	4873 Inhabitants.

An unprecedented activity is now displayed in the construction of moles, lazarettos, and buildings of every kind; large sums are granted for that purpose, without suffering this important concern to be delayed by any correspondence. One of the new moles has already a length of 215 fathoms, and the other of 180, each of which is to be extended to 315 fathoms, and raised 7 feet and a half above the surface of the sea. They are constructed after the manner of the piers at Bayonne, and will be made from 10 to 12 feet wide, exclusive of a parapet with embrasures for 30 pieces of cannon. The port will comprise an area of 60,000 square fathoms, and its entrance will be 150 fathoms wide, so that the ships may get in with the wind at north-east, which otherwise is adverse. The port has a good anchorage, the bottom being of a fine sand and gravel. The depth of water within the port is sufficient to admit the largest ships of war.

It is intended to render the Dniester entirely navigable, so as to bring down the produce of Galicia, and to form an aqueduct to Odessa. Round this new city it is an open country, not having any wood, which appears the only inconvenience.

So rapidly has its commerce increased, that, in the year 1803, before the first of November, there had already arrived 502 ships, of which 472 were loaded and sailed; the ships were of the following nations:

Russians	96	Imperialists	278
English	6	Turkish	56
French	18	Raguseans	21
Spanish	4	Republic of the	} 18
Neapolitans	5	Seven Isles	

In November, 1804, its population amounted to 15000 souls, and above 2900 houses were already inhabitable, buildings were extending, and plans for its magnificence multiplying.

Its chief export has hitherto consisted in grain, but from its situation, it will be the great depôt for the produce which can be conveyed down the different rivers, which fall into the bay near to it.

His majesty gave directions and authority to the Duke de Richlieu, to execute his favourite plan of raising this new city, and promoting this new channel of commerce, and at the same time issued an ukase, dated March 5, 1804, to make this port an entrepôt, which shews the great consideration this new Alexandria enjoys. The articles run thus :

"It is well known how much, we, for the benefit of the state, wish to bring forward the commerce of Odessa. Experience shews how its flourishing state answers our expectation; and for the sake of still further extending the same, we most graciously order,

SECT. 1. *"That from the date hereof, there shall be established in the town of Odessa, an entrepôt for five years.*

SECT. 2. *"The goods warehoused in the entrepôt, may remain in the warehouse or magazine, one year and a half from the date they were warehoused.*

SECT. 3. *"From the beginning of the opening of the navigation the ensuing year, all the articles of import that arrive by sea, at Odessa, and whose importation is not prohibited by the present existing tariff, may be stored in this entrepôt, under the following regulations, &c. &c." (which extend to 27 articles.)*

To give this new port every possible advantage, besides that of being an entrepôt, it has particular privileges granted it for a transito trade, by an ukase addressed to the directing senate, dated St. Petersburg, the 5th of March, 1804.

"As the transito trade is beneficial in all its parts to the empire, it has long had the attention of government. With the general tariff of the year 1782, was published, at the same time, a transito regulation, for such goods as passed through Riga to Poland,

Lithuania, and Gouerland, and with the tariff now in force, even the rules and regulations are mentioned, for the guidance of the Russian merchants who carry foreign goods through Russia; but as neither the place, nor the roads have been named, through which the transito trade was permitted to be carried on, this regulation had not the desired effect. As experience now shews, how the trade of Odessa is increasing from the privileges granted to the place, We think proper, for the still further encouragement of its commerce, to establish the transito trade on the following principles, and command

SECT. 1. "All Russian and foreign merchants, who have the knowledge of carrying on trade en gross, (or wholesale), to foreign countries, shall have liberty to carry all goods, (those excepted which are prohibited by the tariff), that shall arrive by sea, or other Russian towns, at Odessa, as transito goods, to Moldavia, Walachia, the states of the Emperor of Germany, and Prussia. It shall likewise be permitted, to import goods into Odessa, from the above mentioned countries for re-exportation.

SECT. 2. "In those places, where, according to the tenure of the present regulation, the transito trade is permitted, the commanders of the provinces are to inspect the roads, and make the report of the same, to the minister of commerce.

SECT. 3. "Those goods that are carried as transito from Odessa to Moldavia and Walachia, are only to pass through the custom houses of Dubossar and Mohileff; those that go to the states of the Emperor of Germany must pass through the custom-house of Radzivil, and those that are destined for Prussia, must pass through the custom of Krinky."

There are no less than 25 articles in this ukase, to regulate the transito trade, which the limits of this work will not admit.

LIST of those Goods which are allowed Transito, and the whole Drawback, when the Duty has been paid in the Russian Ports.

COTTON GOODS.

Burmetten
 Indian basma
 Bisti, kadifi, or table-cloths
 Bucharian cottons
 Window and bed curtains
 Asiatic kumatschi
 Sashes, or girdles

Gumay, or Persian muslins
 All sorts of nankeens (kitiaka)
 Unwrought cotton, white, coloured, and spun cotton.

SILK GOODS.

Turkish, Chinese, and Persian raw silk, also spun and coloured silk.
 Muchojar, Daray, Turkish, and Persian silk stuffs.

HALF SILK GOODS.

Aladschy, Schemandrufy, Kjutny.

WOOLLEN GOODS.

Uralian and all kind of Asiatic coats and dresses. Camels hair, and all hair of foreign animals, Asiatic horse covers, goats wool, shawls, and carpets.

GOODS OF DIFFERENT KINDS.

Chinese beads (korallen)
 Tea. Sweet oil.
 All sorts of wine.
 All goods that are named under the article of spices in the tariff.

COLOURS.

Indigo, cochineal, madder, morena, bruskawaja (red colours) rasped and unrasped sandal wood. All kinds of dry wood.
 Arabian and Persian gums.

As a further proof of the great attention paid by government to the Black sea, we find that Sebastipol, situated so advantageously upon the promontory of the Crimea, is made an exclusive dock and port for the imperial navy; of the order for which we give a copy.

UKASE TO THE DIRECTING SENATE.

"The Emperor orders the port of Sebastipol to be the principal port for men of war, and that the custom-house there shall totally finish its business, within six months after the date of this ukase, and then be broken up; after the expiration of that time, merchantmen are prohibited from entering into the harbour of Sebastipol, except they are driven in there by storm, or by other misfortune, or for the sake of being repaired, but not to trade, or carry on any com-

merce. As soon as the danger is over, and the repairs are finished, they must not remain any longer in port. Done this 23d of February, 1804.

(Signed) ALEXANDER.

As matters stand at present, the Black sea trade is a very casual one; every misunderstanding betwixt Russia and Turkey, will put an instant stop to the commerce on that side, and must always be a check to every prudent commercial mind.

On the other hand, it is in the power of Great Britain to check the trade likewise, and prevent France and Spain from ever having the command of that trade, so long as we keep possession of Malta: indeed this invaluable gem is of more importance in many points of view to Great Britain, (besides our Indian possessions, and checking the French encroachments in the Levant), than has been hitherto conceived. It is not the author's intention to give his sentiments here upon so great a political point.

As many important discussions, and great events, it is easily to be foreseen, will arise relative to the natural advantages of this quarter; we shall at present pass over these considerations, and proceed, as concisely as possible, to give its past and present state.

The produce which can be exported from the Russian ports on the Black-sea, and sea of Azoph, are principally grain, oak timber, masts, hemp, flax, tar, tallow, hempseed oil, iron, and sail cloth.

Oak timber grows in abundance in the thick forests on the banks of the Dnieper, and on those of the various rivers which are connected with it. The masts, which are purchased on the spot, are generally sent to Riga, and are drawn up against the current of the Dnieper, to be conveyed to the Düna; but they may be floated down the Dnieper all the way to Cherson, consequently at a much cheaper rate. The admiralty, at Cherson, usually made their contracts for oak timber in the forest, and paid 25 copecks for a pood. This way of reckoning, by the weight, is afterwards reduced into cubic feet.

There were some impediments to the exportation of timber this way, arising from the stipulations of the commercial treaty between Russia, and the Porte, in fixing the measure by the tonnage, according to the custom of Europe; whereas the Turks go by the length of the vessel. The quality of the timber is good; there is fine oak timber, as well as wood of all kinds, and the expense of carriage is much less than that of conveying it up the rivers to the Baltic, on which passage, it must pay

duties, either to the Austrians and Prussians, or both, if it is to be shipped from Riga, Memel, or Dantzic.

The best hemp grows in White Russia and Lithuania, which is conveyed down the river Dnieper.

Pitch and tar are obtained in moderate quantities.

Tallow can be had in large quantities, the produce of the cattle fed upon the rich soil of the Ukraine.

Iron from Cherson will not answer; from Taganroc it will stand cheaper than from St. Petersburg.

Sail-cloth may in time be produced by the way of Cherson. Some samples have been sent from thence to Marseilles, which left a handsome profit, as well as several cargoes of grain.

The port most convenient for shipping timber, hemp, and pitch, was Stuboha, near Cherson, (about 30 miles distant); but that port does not admit vessels exceeding 150 tons.

For the other articles, the port of Odessa is preferable, and will be made so.

When the French intended to provide themselves with timber this way, they sent a person from their admiralty, who marked out the trees in the forests that were to be cut, and then pronounced them good, or not. By this means every dispute was avoided.

From such natural advantages, all articles may be conveyed cheaper down to the Black sea, than by the way of the Baltic; but the difference of the expense in the interior carriage is nothing (comparatively speaking) when compared with the freight, insurance, and charges round by the Mediterranean to Great Britain.

The best time for sailing from the ports of the Black sea is in the spring of the year. The passage to Constantinople is effected, in from two to five days.

The purchases on contract are generally accompanied with an advance of a fourth, or half of the money immediately, and a bargain to pay the remaining part on delivery. Contracts may be made to pay the whole on delivery, but the price is higher.

At an early period, a considerable trade was carried on in this quarter, as has already been stated by the Venetians and Genoese, who were driven out of it, before the discovery of the Cape of Good Hope, previous to which, the trade with India was carried on, in part, by the Caspian and this sea; however, after its coming into the possession of Turkey, its natural advantages were totally neglected, and the traffic carried on upon it, was chiefly by the Turks in a small paltry way to the provinces now occupied by Russia. Peter the Great,

however, saw the advantages to be derived here to his empire, and although in 1711, he was obliged to surrender them, yet he did not lose sight of one day acquiring possession, and the free navigation of the Black sea into the Mediterranean. This object, however, became accomplished in the reign of Catharine the Second. In order to occupy the time of the reader as little as possible, and to shew the progressive state of the trade of Russia in that quarter, and the interruptions which it has experienced, below is a table of the imports and exports, with a few historical observations, tending to exhibit the whole at one view.

Historical and Commercial View of the Russia Trade from the Black Sea, and the Sea of Azoph.

Yrs.	Imports. Rubles.	Exports. Rubles.	REMARKS.
1756			A trading company established this year at Temernikow. This is the first year of their trade from that place.
1758	52077	34914	
1759	61603	37848	
1760	85085	42283	
1761	116069	52651	
1762	128906	41315	Trading company of Temernikow was dissolved this year.
1763	59652	43369	
1764	44020	59097	The exports exceed the imports.
1768			The war broke out betwixt Russia and Turkey, which totally interrupted the trade.
1774			This year the peace was concluded, by which Russia obtained a complete navigation of the Black sea, and by the Dardanelles into the Mediterranean, and had the Sea of Azoph ceded to her.
1776	87148	369823	Beginning of the trade at Taganroc.
1777	83246	242118	
1778			A suspension to the trade, in consequence of a dispute betwixt Russia and the Porte, relative to the independence of the Crimea, but which was settled the 21st of March, 1779.
1779	90645	161690	Five Russian built vessels manned with Russian seamen, passed through the Dardanelles.
1780	105471	130187	
1783			The conquest of the Crimea made by Russia.
1784			
1785	448970	735117	A pacification concluded between Russia and the Porte.
1786	517238	519811	
1787			The Austrians for the first time commence trade on this sea
1791			War broke out betwixt Russia and Turkey.
			Peace concluded at Jaffy, by which Russia secured her present possessions.
1793	665711	1295553	
1794	977513	1265682	
1795	544498	930434	
1796	438166	919296	
1797	778759	1929198	
1802	2054789	2986096	

The foregoing statement shews the rapid rise of the trade by these seas, in five years. The imports have nearly trebled, and the exports doubled, so that, from the convenience for importing all the luxuries of life, it may be a disadvantageous trade to Russia, far different from that of the Baltic. The state of the imports and exports, in 1802, will place this remark in a clearer point of view.

The following are the principal ports in the Black sea, and the sea of Azoph, and the share of the trade which they have respectively had, from 1793 till 1797, both inclusive.

	1793.		1794.		1795.		1796.		1797.		
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.		
Taganroc	156410	428087	347581	605119	275213	659966	182744	553583	42794	378788	693204
Orchakoff	244340	209321	365299	181152	128123	12624	65845	60990	8913	38564	53740
Eupatoria	91878	334397	74281	254128	30565	136511	31279	107067	7247	85343	214478
Cherson		147821		68701		47695		48755	1178		35233
Theodosia	77898	54280	80248	30462	4689	20887	24007	35231	4074	50578	69470
Nikoloff		106515		95400		8802		18609	365		37341
Sebastipol	88103	857	87856	7828	47218	2656	22255	3224	4619	63458	4583
Kerch	2963	9959	6390	8419	11726	2942	13795	9751	903	14193	12680
Yenikale	4116	4322	5853	14469	3894	12573	5679	2560	847	4188	13399
Odessa					43065	24824	92559	79422	11530	129492	79091
Ovidiopol									800	4150	5675

<i>Foreign Goods and Manufactures.</i>		<i>Russian Goods and Manufactures.</i>	
Cotton goods	120180	Gold twist	6724
Silk ditto	41937	Sail-cloth	10264
Woollen ditto	21013	Ravenducks	2204
Toys	775	Linen, fine and coarse	5558
China, earthen, and glass ware	2945	Table-cloths and napkins	1173
Writing paper	79	Printed linen	19582
All sorts of artists instruments	684	Felts	39309
Musical instruments	261	Rope and cordage	51773
Statues and other carved work	992	Copper vessels	465
Printed books	212	Iron ditto	4525
Chimney pots	310	Tanned leather	6418
Needles	9	Yufis	72152
Razors	9	Matts	545
		Candles	5861
Total			
189406			
The exportation of this branch exceeds the importation by		Total	224550
	35144		
	224550	All kinds of goods	18218
Pearls	5140		
All other goods	39414	The whole exportation is	2986096
		The exportation of goods from the Euxine, or Black sea, exceeds the importation by	ro. 931307
The whole importation is	2054789		

To give a connected detail of the whole foreign trade of the Black sea, in 1802, the following is inserted, shewing the ships of the nations arrived and sailed, and the number belonging to each trading on that sea with Russia.

Ships.	Arrived.				Sailed.			
	Laden.	Lastage.	Unlad.	Lastage.	Laden.	Lastage.	Unlad.	Lastage.
Russian	122	7988	13	818	134	10889	1	30
French	1	70						
Austrian	70	6925	73	7018	137	14992		
Republic of the Seven Islands	17	1040	4	235	13	1046	1	27
Turkish	199	7181	207	5325	379	12942	4	77
	409	23204	297	13396	663	39269	6	134

Russia has some little coasting trade from the creeks to the ports in the Black sea, and from one port to another, as well as vessels employed in the fisheries. In 1802 the number of both stood thus :

	For transport.			For fishing.	
	Vessels.	Lastage.		Vessels.	Lastage.
Russians	38	822		—	—
& 266 small craft that go to sea.			Accounts had not been received.		
Turkish	6	147		—	—

Of the Trade betwixt Russia and Turkey.

There is a very considerable navigation in the Black sea and the sea of Azoph with Constantinople; also in the principal ports in the Crimea, from April to the end of October. From Taganroc there are usually upwards of a hundred Greek ships, under Russian colours, loaded chiefly with iron.

The new port of Odessa is preferable to that of Cherson, for the produce of the Ukraine, because, in the latter port, goods are obliged to be transported, in lighters, to the ships in the open roads, which is often attended with danger from the weather, and always great risk on account of pillage; and because, at Odessa, there are foreign houses of different nations, whilst, at all the other ports, they are chiefly Greeks and Russians.

The usual freight from Odessa and its neighbouring ports, is from 40 to $\frac{5}{4}\%$ per quintal, and from Taganroc 70 to $\frac{5}{4}\%$.

Ships, in general, are but a few days on their passage from Odessa, but from Taganroc the navigation is not only much longer, but tedious, and liable to many inconveniences and dangers.

Merchandise may, in general, be embarked the whole winter through at Odessa; but, from Taganroc, the navigation generally ceases in the month of November, and does not open again till the end of March or April.

Insurances may be effected with insurance companies at Trieste, who have an agent at Constantinople: on good European bottoms going from Odessa, in the fine season, to Constantinople, at from two to three per cent, but, in Greek bottoms, from three to four per cent.; whilst, from Taganroc, the premium is generally from five to eight per cent. and, under particular circumstances, ten or twelve per cent. being hardly any other than Greek vessels. Indeed, the business is carried on by the Greeks, with whom it is impossible to cope; they have a very strange method, by their precipitation, of ruining every branch of commerce they attempt to cultivate.

The articles of Russia produce, generally shipped for Turkey, are, iron, wheat, tallow, sail-cloth, caviar, cordage, and anchors for ships of war. Furriery, double and single refined loaf-sugar, if the prices are low in Russia; broad and narrow linens, all nations can import from Russia, through the Dardanelles principally, but under Russian and Austrian flags; by means of those colours, Spain, France, Venice, Trieste, Italy, &c. &c. import a great deal.

The returns to Russia, in Turkey articles, for general consumption, are wines, dried raisins, black currants and figs, some silks and cotton; of each of these last articles, from a million to a million and a half of dollars annually; and, what may appear extraordinary, chiefly by land, when they can have water-conveyance a great distance in Russia and along the Turkey frontiers or entirely across the Black sea.

Imperial crown pieces are to be had, to any amount, at Constantinople.

The Russian and Austrian flags, like the Ottoman, have free egress and regress, without any expense, or other delay, than merely exhibiting the required documents, at the Dardanelles. The same privilege has been granted to the British and French flags.

Taganroc is a convenient situation for the trade of the south-east interior of Russia, which is carried on at little expense, by means of the Don, ascending that river to where the Wolga becomes contiguous, when goods are conveyed over land, and then ascend the Wolga, by which channels all the produce of Siberia and the Caspian is easily conveyed; and by which, formerly, Russia imported figs, wines, raisins, cotton wool and yarn, silks, drugs, oil, and other articles; by this means, the principal traffic was carried on in exporting caviar, butter, tallow, iron, &c. before Odessa was established. The navigation betwixt the Düna and the Dnieper will make some difference now to this trade. Constantinople takes about 30,000 kintals of iron annually, (equal to about 1650 tons) and Smyrna takes as much.

A considerable business is done in bills of exchange, betwixt Taganroc, Odessa, Constantinople, and Mosco, among the Greeks and their connexions, but they have no regulated course.

The Black sea trade with Smyrna is likewise considerable; exporting from Taganroc thither, annually, chiefly of iron from 30 to 40,000 kintals; grain, value more or less, from 2 to 300,000 Turkish dollars of 40 paras; tallow may be about from 40 to 60,000 okes, which comes in leather packages, like butter; coarse canvas from 18 to 20,000 pikes, annual consumption; canvas for bedding, from 10 to 15,000 pikes; caviar, of the weight of 80, to 100,000 okes; butter, to the amount of from 30 to 60,000 Turkish dollars; sheep's wool, tallow, canvas, and hair-sacking together, may be reckoned from 40 to 60,000 Turkish dollars.

Furs drest from 3 to 400,000 dollars, are generally exported from Russia to Smyrna alone. They find their way by and to

Usungiora and Silemnia, in Romelia, where there are annually, two fairs, and where they are bought by the shopkeepers from Turkey.

The exports from Smyrna to Odessa and Taganroc were, in 1800, estimated in red coarse cotton yarn, from 3 to 500,000 Turkish dollars; dried fruit, that is, figs and raisins, from 1 to 200,000 dollars; Metelin olive oil, more or less, from 2 to 400,000 dollars; Samos wines, do. from 50 to 100,000 do.; madder roots, from 20 to 30,000 do.; incense, from 30 to 60,000 do.; cotton-wool, from 50 to 60,000 do.; gum Arabic, safflower, dates, &c. from 30 to 70 to 80,000 do. Egypt and Syria generally take from 10 to 15,000 quintals of iron from Smyrna, annually.

The ships, for the most part, in the Black sea trade, betwixt Russia and Turkey, are indifferent: nor are many of their commanders much better, generally being men whose character will not bear much examination.

The whole of this trade is in the hands of the Greeks, on account of the extraordinary assiduity, economy, and personal attendance to their business, which no foreigner can equal. Their assiduity and personal attendance never cease, even during the time Constantinople is infected by the plague, which drives every foreigner into the country. The imports from Russia being subject to retail, their advantage is evident. All foreigners are burthened by brokers attached solely to one house, who receive full five per cent brokerage, between the buyer and seller. The Greek saves that charge, and at most pays a half per cent. The foreigner receives his information from his broker, who is a Jew, respecting the markets: the Greek attends to it himself. The Greek houses generally consist of two or more partners; and in their export trade one of them is sent to the islands to provide the wine, oil, soap, silk, &c. with an allowance of a few pence per day, for his nourishment. The advantage does not solely rest on the trifling charge, but mostly in the advantage of purchasing in person, and suffering no deceit in weight or measure. What is advanced relating to the advantages of those people is manifested by their possessing exclusively, every trade open to them. The adventures of those people to Russia are accompanied by a partner, as supercargo, who sells and provides the returns. The trades between Germany, Holland, and Italy, with Turkey, is immense; and yet not one native house of any of those countries exists either at Constantinople, or at any one of the scales in Turkey, excepting Aleppo. It now follows to consider the continuance of com-

municating with England by the same route, or by the Black sea. On that subject it is not difficult to form a judgment. It must be remarked, in the distance from England to Turkey, through the channel described, there is not much interior navigation made use of, whilst, by the Mediterranean, there are long delays. During the months of June, July, and August, it rarely happens that ships can clear the channel, from the Dardanelles to the Black sea; and, when there, the Etisian winds often render their voyage very long. The Palos Meotis is not navigable from November to April, at Taganroc; and that place furnishes all the iron exported, and some corn, which are articles of the greatest demand for Turkey; and the export to Italy and Spain. Odessa, however, will furnish all produce, iron excepted at a reasonable rate, from the Ukraine, and the fertile countries communicating with the Dnieper. Twelve months, however, will be requisite for a ship to perform a voyage from London to any port in the Black sea and back.

From the remarks which have arisen in treating of the trade betwixt Russia and Turkey, and that relative to the commerce of the latter with Great Britain, we must beg leave to make a digression, and to offer a few observations on the British Turkey trade, particularly as a new avenue will shortly be opened by which the British merchants, may avail themselves during war, at as little, or less, expense, and in as little time, as that by way of the Mediterranean in the period of peace.

Turkey Trade from England, through Russia, and over the Black Sea; and State of the Trade betwixt Great Britain and Turkey.

It may be said to be deviating from the principle of this work, to touch upon the trade of Great Britain with Turkey; but, whilst treating of the trade of Russia in the Black sea, and that of Turkey with the former empire, it will be observed, in the few remarks which are here offered, particularly in time of war, that the merchants of Great Britain might carry on their trade, from hence to Turkey, through Russia.

This company, in London, had its charter granted in 1581, and sprang from a decayed company of merchants trading to Barbary; it was once a joint-stock-company, and has been sometime, as it now is, a regulated company, having its own, and bye-laws, which are contained in one hundred and thirty-eight articles. The admission into this company is by application to the governor, deputy-governor, treasurer, or secretary, paying

twenty pounds, taking the oaths prescribed; and conforming to its bye-laws and regulations.

There is a British consul general at Constantinople, entirely for commercial purposes; and consuls at Smyrna, Salonica, Alexandria, and Aleppo; vice-consuls at Patrap, Scio, and the Dardanelles, and an agent at Cyprus, who are appointed by the Levant Company, or by their recommendation.

An act passed, in 1780, allowing the Irish the same privileges as the British merchants in this trade, so that it is open to all British subjects becoming members of this company; and that every one trading there should become such is only policy; for some discoveries, leading to such a regulation, were made, arising from French products and manufactures being imported into Turkey, under the former British privileges. An act was passed, in 1753, for regulating the company, and authorizing them to make bye-laws. Although it was nine years previous, that strong remonstrances were presented, stating the cause of the decline of the Turkey trade. The French account of the Levant trade, given in 1787, is interesting; and, to this day, they view it with a most envious and wishful eye.

A short period ago, an author* gave his sentiments upon the trade of Great Britain with Turkey; and, attributing a spirit of monopoly to this company, this, and other statements, was ably answered by Edward Lee, Esq. one of the most respectable merchants of London in that trade, who had long resided in Turkey, and who, with ability and great good sense, maintains his arguments with conviction, founding them on experience and facts.

A few words relative to the Turkey company, and equally applicable to the Russia and all other regulated companies, may serve to remove error and prejudice.

The word company signifies persons associated for the purpose of carrying on a particular branch of trade, or for some particular purpose, and implies, in a general sense, that they do so with a joint stock.

The traders in a regulated company do not properly form a company at all: it is only a subscription, and the subscribers to Lloyd's might as well and properly be termed a company, (for they act independently, though subject to certain regulations), as the Russia and Turkey merchants are.

The meaning of the word would be of little importance, were

* Mr. Eton.

it not that the idea of a company carries with it the idea of monopoly, of restraint, of high prices, and high profits, thereby exciting prejudice against those who belong to such societies or regulated companies. This has gone so far, that it may lead some time or other to the abolishing entirely the form of such companies, it may therefore be well to observe, that when the trade to a country is such as to require some general expenses and regulations for its convenience, it is always well to have a regulated company. Thus it is to Turkey and Russia, but it would be totally useless to the United States of America. New branches of trade require in many cases a general concurrence and effort to make them prosper, and this is best effected by a regulated company. When the trade is of great national importance, such as the West India trade, government finds itself under the necessity of providing funds for general purposes, and the merchants find it necessary for their interest to meet in assemblies, and act in concert. The owners of shipping have found it necessary also to assemble, and to contribute funds for certain general purposes, which is in fact, (though without any authority from government), acting as a regulated company; and as this is done, of their own free will, by men who best understand their own interests, there can be no doubt of the advantage and utility.

It is unnecessary entering into the historical or commercial researches of this company; it is sufficient to remark, and it does the highest honour to those composing the direction, that no merchants can act with more laudable or disinterested zeal than they, in promoting the trade of this country with Turkey; but there are physical and moral causes, however, aided and supported by the liberality of government, which will counteract their patriotic endeavours. It is needless here entering into details, which at the best might be deemed speculative, when the ability, experience, and exertions of those who have resided in the country, and devoted their whole talents and views to promote the British trade to that quarter, find it attended with but little success. The French have been indefatigable at all times to promote and even monopolize this trade, from their local and superior advantages over England, but likewise hitherto in vain.

The interior facilities now forwarding in Russia, and the great attention to promote its commerce, will open a new channel by which the British trade to Turkey may be carried on, and no doubt it will be so if Russia considers her own interest. A transit trade can be made equally profitable to Russia as that

which consists in her own produce, and as much to her interest.

If Russia wishes to extend her navigation, she should take off all unnecessary restraints or duties, which can in any way tend to check it; for the same number of men will gain as much or more by the carrying-trade in this instance, as by cultivating the soil.

The British commerce with Turkey may then, at a moderate expense and risk, and in a reasonable time, be carried on through Russia, when Great Britain and France are at war, when the premium of insurance is high, as well as freights, and when great delays often occur by waiting for convoys.

Hitherto, such articles of value, as would bear the expense by land through Germany, has been defrayed by the premium which would have been paid for the sea risk. From the borders of Germany, overland to Constantinople, frequent robberies occur, from the nature of the government police, so that a new channel, which we shall point out, seems preferable, to the more tedious conveyance through Germany, even supposing that the Elbe and the Rhine should be joined to the Danube: these are considerations worthy the notice of those in the British Turkey trade.

In time of war, the freight from London to Turkey has often been from 8*l.* to 10*l.* sometimes to 12*l.* per ton, and even higher, according to the nature of the article. The premium of insurance, from 18 even to 35 guineas per cent. has been paid, but with returns for convoy, which has left from 10*l.* to 20*l.* per cent. net premium to pay upon the goods, exclusive of a detention of some months for convoy. The new channel to be here pointed out will save great expense as well as time, by the way of Riga, up the Düna, and through the Beresinski canal, which will be finished this year, to join the Dnieper: this channel is preferable to that by way of Königsberg, (which will be described under that head), Memel, Petersburg, or any other, because the goods, by way of Riga, will have to ascend a less distance against the current, and sooner get into a favourable one to descend the Dnieper to Odessa, from whence the frequent, nay, almost constant opportunities will cause great expedition. The spring and autumn would be particularly favourable to this new mode, not only in ascending the Düna, but descending the Dnieper, till the obstructions in that river are completely removed, which are already described in treating of the rivers of Russia. Supposing the merchandise was shipped from England in the end of March, to Riga, they would

arrive in the middle of April at that city; and, on the canal being completed, from the great traffic which will be carried on by this channel, immediately proceed forward for the Black sea; a month might be allowed, the expense would be trifling, as well as the risk.

The freight from England to Riga might be reckoned about 20s. per ton, as most vessels to Russia go in ballast, or only part loaded. The premium of insurance in spring and summer would be only four guineas per cent. to return two per cent. for convoy. The transit duty through Russia would be one-eighth part of the customs, as will be seen at the end of the last chapter in treating of Russia, and in some instances, by Odessa, nothing. The expense from Riga to Odessa might not exceed 50s. per ton, by water, and not more by the sledge roads, part of the way in winter. The freight from Odessa, as well as the insurance, are both reasonable, as is already mentioned in treating of the trade betwixt Russia and Turkey; so that, taking the freight from England, by way of Riga or even Königsberg, to Constantinople, it would only be about half of that by the Mediterranean, in time of war and the premium of insurance altogether not more than from four to six per cent. being only from one-third to a half of the amount by the other route.

The calculation is chiefly made to Smyrna from England, and to Constantinople by the way of the Black sea; the intermediate expense would be but trifling. For the information of the British merchants and manufacturers, a short sketch is given of the trade collectively to the whole Turkish empire, trusting that some information may be selected therefrom, by those wishing to extend their trade to that quarter.

The principal Imports into Turkey from Great Britain consist of

West-India coffee
Java ditto
Pepper
Loaf sugar
Powder ditto
St. Domingo indigo
Carolina ditto
Guatemala ditto
Louisiana ditto
Tin plates
Lead
Rice

All these articles are of considerable consumption at this market, and generally command ready money or short credit.

Shalloons, common
fine

Cloves

Cinnamon

Mahoots

Shallots

Kerseymeres of usual
breadth

Broad-cloth

Hair-list-drabs

Pimento

White ginger

Nutmegs

Fernambuc wood

Santa marta

Logwood

Lead shot

Iron

Irish butter

Those articles, excepting kerseymeres and hair-list-drabs, are of *very considerable* consumption, and are usually sold at a credit of $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 months, which is generally prolonged to 3, $3\frac{1}{2}$, or 4 months.

These articles are also in general demand, but of less considerable consumption.

The Money, Weights, and Measures, at Constantinople.

MONIES.

The current coin of Turkey, by which all goods are bought and sold, is a piastre, or dollar, subdivided into 40 parts, called paras, though all accounts are kept there by the English in piasters and eighties.

The current exchanges more or less are with

London $14\frac{4}{10}$ piastre per last.

Holland $4\frac{5}{8}$ of a piastre per current florin.

Vienna $\frac{5}{8}$ of ditto per ditto.

Leghorn $\frac{1}{4}\frac{10}{100}$ of ditto per dollar of eight rials.

The exchanges are observed to rise in the spring, and continue to do so till the approach of Autumn, when they invariably fall. This latter being the season when all the staple commodities of that country come to market, the returns being then made in goods, the number of remitters become of course diminished, and bills on Europe more plentiful.

WEIGHTS.

The weights by which all gruff goods, spices, dyes, &c. are bought and sold, are as follows: the smallest is called a dram, though not agreeing in weight with the English dram, and of which 112 are equal to 1 lb. English.

An oke, composed of 400 of the said drams, or about $2\frac{1}{4}$ lb. English.

A kintal, composed sometimes of 44 okes, and sometimes of 45, according to the article vended. A pood contains $13\frac{1}{3}$ okes; 112 lb. English make 40 okes Turkish.

MEASURES.

The only measure of lengths used in this country, in the sale of cloth, stuffs, &c. is called a pike, and is usually subdivided by thirds. It contains 27 inches. One yard English makes $1\frac{1}{3}$ pike Turkish.

The measure of grain is called a killol, of which $8\frac{1}{2}$ make a quarter of wheat in London; and 4 killow of rice, if it be of good quality, ought to weigh — lb. English.

AT SMYRNA.

100 rotoles make 1 kintal, equal to 123 lb. English.

44 okes make 1 kintal of cotton wool.

45 ditto make 1 ditto of other commodities.

1 oke is 400 drams, equal to $2\frac{1}{4}$ lb. English.

1 ditto of opium is 250 drams.

1 ditto of saffron is 120 ditto.

1 ditto of goats' wool is 800 ditto.

2400 drams is 1 batman of silk.

610 ditto is 1 tiffer, by which silk is bought.

Accounts are kept at Smyrna in piastres and aspers. The English houses calculate 80 aspers to the piastre, others 100, and others again 120.

General Imports from Turkey into Great Britain.

General Exports to Turkey from Great Britain.

Imports.	Pack- age.	1790	1791	1795	1799	1802	1804	Exports.	Pack- age or weight.	1790	1791	1795	1799	1802	1804
Cotton wool	bales	12131	2838	1585	1350	3666	234	Mulins and calicoes	bales	98	156	59	202	66	151
Carpets		119	178	118	7	180	234	Cloths		124	216	279	196	101	14
Madders		2651	3781	1427	64	5558	2265	Stuffs	crates	7153	1666	602	729	275	79
Yellow Berries	sacks	233	419	752	64	799	699	Clas and earthenware		83	47	494	230	277	
Goats wool	bales	124	247	62	94	77	119	Clocks and watches	cases	31	32	27	17	41	46
Sheeps wool		111	100				38	Indigo	calks	124	138	311	222	76	64
Mohair yarn		190	190	179	326	311	377	Guns and pistols	cases	14	6	6	203	79	22
Sponges		53	76	144	74	27	266	Hardware and cutlery	parcels	32	30	6	203	79	27
Silk		100	306	93	10	15	15	Iron plates	boxes		52	130			276
Cotton yarn		241	252	546	23	154	422	Sugar	calks	104	112	120	443	1029	123
Safflower								Tin in barrels	barrels	1360	1493	2423	3180	990	316
Gum Arabic								Lead shot	calks	2668	919	1277	575	373	394
Affeticida		358	428	114	319	703	906	Red and white lead	tons	296	1266	10	163	21	24
Gambanum	} parcels							Wrought and cast iron	pieces	100	31	2424	55	10	
Tragacanth								Brass wood	punch.	14	12	10	54	27	51
Opium		438	367	327	10	659	318	Tin plates	boxes	1097	1769		1381	740	
Whetstones		27	34	100	493	56	114	Lead in pigs	pieces	6322	4967	3265	7337	1178	915
Raffins	barrels	378	3638	382	493	546	8858	Pepper	bags	358	318	543	644	632	
Figs	barrels	2767	7505	2657	441	3125	9304	Pimento	calks	57	25			10	
Valencia	tons	176	275	2	120	159		Tar	barrels	508	128				
Emery flones			33		7	113	110	Rice		507			565		
Boxwood	Cwt.	71	200		15	133	201	Coffee	bags	177	262	1584	1371	787	3
Liquorice root	bales	87	336				40								
Goat skins	pieces	380	11				764								
Sheep skins undrest		168	12				37								
Unwrought copper	tons														

The Value of the Imports and Exports to and from Great Britain and Turkey.

Yrs.	Imports.	Exports.
	£.	£.
1701	386611	239102
1705	50174	90443
1710	11610	417690
1715	311903	181109
1720	398564	359858
1725	345379	252317
1730	291786	174103
1735	126191	292797
1740	26787	150374
1745	225797	780
1750	189285	172800
1755	69687	71589
1760	58916	55730
1765	122652	91735
1770	164366	22032
1773	163538	118475
1782	41325	4248
1785	146906	82440
1791	178388	189291
1792	290599	273785
1793	184681	45270
1794	324906	117700
1795	84299	149938
1796	150182	155510
1797	104838	23532
1798	42285	62168
1799	33091	226078
1800	199773	166804
1801	141137	172198
1802	182424	180000
1803	175427	155369

Great Britain.

England only, being nothing from Scotland.

State of the Trade and Navigation of England with Turkey, in the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802.

Years.	Value of Imports from Turkey.		Exports to Turkey.				Total Value of Exports.		Ships Inwards.						Ships Outwards.						
			British Manufactures.		Foreign Merchandise.				British.			Foreign.					British.				
	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	vess.	tons.	men.	vess.	tons.	men.						
1800	199773	9	10	111096	0	10	55708	0	5	16804	1	3	14	4439	267	5	1145	110	6	2456	146
1801	141137	10	6	106878	17	11	65319	3	3	172198	1	2	7	1839	117	2	274	21	10	2235	143
1802	132424	13	4	101575	10	1	78424	24	6	180000	4	7	19	3789	245	1	180	9	18	3888	217

CHAPTER IX.

Of the Loan Banks. Assignment and Aid Banks. Discount Office. Table of Money lent on Russian Produce. College of Commerce. The Brack.

DURING the reign of Catharine the second, three different banks were established at St. Petersburg; and during the reign of the Emperor Paul, the Aid Bank, and Bill Discount Office.

1. The **LOAN BANK**, or **LOMBARD**, is an establishment, the profits of which belong to the St. Petersburg Foundling Hospital; by an ukase of the Empress in 1772, to prevent the usury and oppression to which the poor were exposed. The Lombard lends on gold and silver, three-fourths of the value, on other metals it lends half the value, and on jewels, as much as the circumstance of the times will allow, an estimation being made by sworn appraisers. The rate of interest was regulated and established in 1786 throughout the Empire at 5 per cent. At the Lombard, one year's interest is taken in advance; pledges that are forfeited are publicly sold, and what they produce more, than what the capital advanced, the interest due, and the charges amount to, are returned to the owners. Money can be deposited in this bank, for which no interest is received, and it may on two days notice be withdrawn. If monies are paid into the bank, and a declaration made that the same shall remain a year longer, and that three months notice will be given, when intended to be taken out, then the lawful interest on the capital is allowed, payable in the same sort of money, as that which was put into the bank; as is likewise the capital when withdrawn.

2. The **ASSIGNATION BANK** was established by the Empress in 1768 for St. Petersburg and Mosco, which was opened in 1770; afterwards in many government towns bank-comptoirs

were established, where, likewise, on paying copper money, assignations were issued of 25, 50, and 100 rubles paying the assignations, when presented again, with copper money.

In 1786, this bank was changed into a Reichs (imperial) Assignment Bank, at St. Petersburg. Their notes issued, are on white, red, and blue paper, manufactured for the purpose; the blue for 5, the red for 10, and the white for 25, 50, and 100 rubles each. When this was converted into an imperial establishment, the former old assignations were all called in and exchanged for new ones. This bank exchanges injured or torn assignations for new ones, or pays in copper money if demanded: according to a declaration made by government, the amount of the bank assignations to be issued, was never to exceed the sum of one hundred millions of rubles, which, if the silver ruble is reckoned at three shillings and two pence, is above fifteen millions sterling, being nearly as much as the Bank of England issues, and considerably more, than it did, before its restriction of paying in specie.

3. THE LOAN BANK, *for the nobility and the towns*, was established by Catharine the second also, in 1786. Its destination is to lend to the nobility, on landed property, or on male peasants (boors), according to the revision-register of 1781, taking each head at 40 rubles. Its intention was for assisting the nobility and promoting payment of debts, and the improvement of their estates: the emission, for this purpose, is limited to twenty-two millions; and a sum of eleven millions is appropriated for lending on stone and brick houses in towns, and grounds adjacent; the loans are made in bank assignations, which very much encouraged their circulation. The interest is 5 per cent. and 3 per cent. is paid as a reimbursement of the capital advanced. Those reimbursements are put together and deducted from the loan, or the number of mortgaged peasants are lessened. In this manner the interest and capital are reduced, and the whole debt is fully extinguished in twenty years.

To this bank is annexed an insurance establishment against fire, for the houses, and fabrics, on which it makes advances, and on other property, which must be valued by a court, when three-fourths of the value is lent, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. premium is annually paid. This bank has also the privilege of coining money from imported silver and gold coin, or plain silver, gold, or copper, according to the regulations of the mint office. It also has liberty of discounting bills at $\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. per month.

According to an estimate made, the maintaining the assignation and loan banks, annually costs government 116,000 rubles.

The State of the Imperial Loan Bank in 1794, and which had in Effects Rubles 38,540,468 39½, as under,

DEBIT		ro.	co.
To the original capital of the bank, anno 1754		404560	36
the former bank of Mosco		1403412	10½
Assignment Bank		26447686	87½
by supreme command, paid in by the late general } procureur, Prince Vafenskoy		478011	35½
by the late high steward Yelagin		9820	66½
the legacy of Prince Kantimir		102834	2½
from the Security Bank		21382	77
from the revenues of the estates Bogoroditza and } Bobrikoevitch		103425	64
the fund for the erection of universities and schools		358587	61½
the capital of the St. George's order		527358	29½
the College of Commerce		5509	56½
the artillery cadet company		34774	74½
the Academy of Sciences		30367	50
the Court Stable Kontora		121852	4½
the school direction		122856	2
the general post direction		441247	72½
the magistracy of St. Petersburg		8126	43½
the college of general concern of ditto		90625	79½
the provision magazine of ditto		404532	28½
the finance chamber of Mosco		45720	22½
ditto of St. Petersburg		2072	46½
the printing-office of the synod		31230	
the monastery of St. Serguis		2563	75
the money of St. Cyril		4006	50
fundry private persons		4987249	111½
the Imperial Finance office, at Petersburg		4955	48½
several, for sums sent in without proper explanation		7188	71½
interest for taxes paid before due		42	50
the assurance office		56148	73½
the capital of the bank		1782319	10½
Total	Rubles	38540468	39½
Consisting in			
Gold and silver	Rubles	1273507	60
Assignats and copper		37266960	79

CONTRA,		CREDIT.	
By various debtors for 8 years	Rubles	11081140	8½
ditto 20 years		17333369	50½
ditto 22 ditto		7841538	70½
the bank of Ekatarinossk		1213016	19½
In cash		1071403	90½
Total		38540468	30½

THE AID BANK.

This bank was established by the Emperor Paul, by an ukase, dated the 27th December, 1797, commencing its operations on the first March following: as it is rather novel in its nature, an abstract of its plan, and some of its regulations are given.

The preamble sets forth that, "numbers of the class of nobility, groaning under a burden of debts, either descending by inheritance from father to son, or incurred by profligacy, had caused many of the nobility to fall into the hands of rapacious usurers, by whom they were plundered of their estates and property, to the ruin of an innocent posterity; therefore, to enable the nobility to discharge their debts on the one hand, and satisfy the creditors on the other, his Majesty establishes an Imperial Aid Bank, under certain conditions and regulations, of which the following are some of the rules:"

1. The relief to be granted according to the necessities of the applicant, and according to a certificate of the value of the landed property, and the mortgages upon it, or the immovable property.*

2. Those, whose estates are burdened with debts, and wishing for aid, must present a petition to the directors of the bank for the same, and produce legal and requisite testimonies relative to any incumbrance.

3. The distribution of the aid to be given is issued upon immovable property, according to the number of people taken at the last revision, which, in governments of the first class, is at 75, the second at 65, the third at 50, and the fourth class at 40 rubles each boor. Of the classing the governments register is given.

4. Exclusive of making advances on immovable property in Courland, Liefland, and Esthonia, it lends on manufactories in proportion to their value.

5. The relief to be given by tickets upon this property, are according to a certain form, &c.

6. Orders their currency; to establish their credit, to be received in all departments of the government as a legal payment.

7. Those who have borrowed from the fund of the Found-

* Immovable property is here meant the boors, or slaves, upon the estates.

ling Hospital and the Loan Bank, may transfer the same to this bank.

8. Tickets are made transferable from one to another.

9. Though the tickets are securities on real or immovable property, all the governments are ordered to protect them.

10. Orders all government departments to receive these tickets, in payment, whenever presented.

11. The term of the tickets to be in circulation is twenty-five years, reckoning from the period, the bank was established, and regulates the manner in which the tickets, and advances are to be issued; but the interest for the first five years is fixed at 6 per cent. on the amount of the debt only.

12. Relates to the periods of paying the interest, and repaying the capital by annual payments.

13. The payment of the annual interest to be in copper money, or bank notes; but the first payment towards liquidating the capital, may be in the tickets of this establishment.

14. The payment of the interest, to be made three months before the period of the annual opening of the bank.

15. Those who receive aid must terminate or pay, within twenty-five years, from the time the bank was opened.

16. Directs the bank to settle its interest accounts once every year; and those who do not receive that, which is due within six months after from the bank, forfeit any future claim to it.

17. The borrower can redeem his pledge, on paying in copper, or bank notes, and allowing the difference betwixt the interest paid, and that received by the bank.

18. When the capital and interest are repaid, the estates to be declared free, and published in the news-papers.

21. The rules of the Loan Bank, instituted in 1786, to be followed; which point out the mode of the provincial courts sending certificates.

22. Makes the governors of provinces, officers of the courts of justice, and all concerned, even to the clerks, responsible, that the property is of the value, the certificates they grant express.

24. Possessions so mortgaged in this bank, are not liable to confiscation, or prosecution by public, or private claimants.

25. Any nobleman, even after mortgaging his estate to this bank, can sell it to another, but subject to the same obligations the original proprietor imposed.

27. Orders the money advanced to be paid out in tickets of even sums, and notice to be sent to the government in which

the property lays, of its being pledged; and likewise orders its being published in the newspapers.

28. "The borrower, having received the tickets from the Aid Bank, has a right to offer them immediately in payment of his debts; and, if any creditor shall refuse accepting the said notes in payment, he shall be declared a notorious miser, and an abominable usurer; the capital sum he has to claim as creditor, shall be converted into a debt against himself, and he shall be arrested for the benefit of the bank; at the same time, all bills or obligations, of whatever kind, held by him for said capital sum, shall be cancelled, and the payment transferred towards augmenting the capital of the Aid Bank."

29. Allows any nobleman, even not in debt, to borrow money upon his estates, to enable him to carry on agriculture, establish works and manufactories, for public or private benefit.

30. Establishes fines in case the interest is not annually and punctually paid, the fine increases from 1 to 3 per cent. each month, till three months are expired; and if part of the capital is not then paid, the bank sends notice to those noblemen residing nearest the estate, who must receive and remit the produce of it to the bank; and, on neglect, to be punished as a principal.

31. And the owner of the estate is ever after deprived of any interference till the debt is paid.

32. Those residing at a distance are allowed to pay the interest to the government chancery, or post-office, allowing to it a half per cent. usually charged for conveyance of money. The tickets will be received by the bank, in payment of the mortgage, when presented by the proprietor in person, otherwise to be paid in copper, or bank notes.

33. As the valuation of the property, is made according to the number of males on the estate; no sale or transfer of them, is allowed during the continuance of the mortgage; and all governors of provinces, and others, are to suffer no decay in works or manufactories.

36. In case any debtors have any property described, and refuse to pay their creditors, the latter, on petitioning the directors of the bank, will examine into the case; and, if found just, will take the debtor's estate in pledge, and satisfy the creditor, if the property is adequate thereto, by paying in bank notes or tickets.

39, and last article. "We have provided for the mutual accommodation of debtor and creditor, and sufficiently secured the interests of each; we are resolved to admit of no alterations

subversive of these rules and regulations; and therefore *order*, that no petitions or representations of any kind whatever, from either debtors to the bank, or their creditors, shall be received; and whoever dares to present such, shall be accounted a disturber of the peace."

"After these regulations, his majesty hopes, that when the debtors are rescued from the hands of the usurer, and the fair creditor is paid, they will double their care and attention to all sorts of useful economy, laying aside, more and more, all extravagance and unnecessary expense in their families; thus guarding them from poverty, and confirming their property on foundations never to be shaken or destroyed."*

(L. S.) PAUL.

The English reader will see these extraordinary arrangements with astonishment, and from them may judge how far Russia is behind this country, both in knowledge of liberty and finance. The care with which the articles are drawn up, and the embarrassment which they must necessarily bring on those who have recourse to such a mode of paying debts, are difficult to be accounted for, unless there might have been, either from the fate of Poland or some other cause of a peculiar and political nature, reasons which it is not in the province of this work to enter into.

DISCOUNT-OFFICE.

The establishment of the Discount Office, for the advance of money upon bills and Russian products; and also of an Insurance Office, (exclusive of the Imperial Assignment Bank) for the purpose of insuring such goods upon which advances may be made, are by the imperial edict of 18th December, 1797, in force and operated since the 1st March, 1798.

Regulations and Rules at the Discount Office.

The discount office is established for the purpose of aiding and invigorating trade, and commerce, solely for the benefit of

* That some idea may be formed of the extent of the aid thus offered to noble-men, and the criterion by which their property is estimated, it may be well to observe, that in Russia the population does not amount to more (towns included) than one family to a square mile; let us say they are all the families of boors, then there will be one boor for every square mile, or 640 acres: now, as 60 rubles was the average lent, according to the number of boors, that is about a ruble, on ten acres, or about 3d. per acre.

the Russian merchant, fabricant, and manufacturer, having occasion for money for a certain time, until he can have the returns of his profits, and such will be thereby assisted.

1. This aid to be given upon such bills as may be brought by the merchant or manufacturer, being a Russian subject, as he may hold of purchasers of his goods, and solely of such goods as are purchased, the term of payment of which has not come round. This to extend over all the commercial towns of the empire.

2. Upon goods of real Russian produce and manufacture, given as security by the trading Russian subject, whether merchant, fabricant, or manufacturer.

3. To foreigners and all sorts of people, upon gold and silver, &c. &c. entrusted as a deposit at the office.

For the fulfilment of these obligations, the discount office divides itself into two parts; the first issues its cash upon bills, the second upon goods of real Russian produce, and upon gold and silver.

The bill discount office, to discount no bills of a longer date to run, than nine months at the utmost.

The rate at which the Bill Discount Office makes advances on native produce and manufactures to the proportionate value, according to the market price; the date allowed the note for each article; the premium of insurance from fire for that period; the brokerage and warehouse rent are contained in the following table.

Russia produce and Manufacture on which Advances are made.	Date of the Notes for each Artic.	Prem. of Insu. for the Time.	Brokerage for the transla-tion	Warehouf-erent for the Time.	Proportion of the Advance, according to Market-price of each Article.	
1 Iron in bars and assorted	from 6 to 6 mon.	$\frac{1}{8}$ th per cent.	$\frac{1}{4}$ th per cent.	$\frac{1}{32}$ d per cent.	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
2 Hemp of all kinds	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$
3 Flax	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{5}{8}$
4 Yufts	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
5 Sole, double, pump leather	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
6 Goat, sheep, & shamoy do.	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
7 Prepared shp.-sk. wh. & bl.	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
8 Ditto seal-skins	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
9 Saffron and colours	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
10 Copper	6 6	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{32}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$
11 Wax	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
12 Hemp & lins. oil, & liquids	1 1	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{3}{5}$
13 Tallow	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{2}{5}$
14 ——— candles	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{2}{5}$
15 Soap	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{2}{5}$
16 Bristles	3 3	$\frac{3}{16}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$
17 Hare-skins	2 2	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{3}{5}$	$\frac{2}{5}$
18 Lime	3 3	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{32}$	$\frac{5}{8}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
19 Calimancoes & $\frac{1}{2}$ do. ps. } piece of 50 arsheen	6 6	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$
20 Flems, linen, & sail-cloth } piece of 50 arsheen	6 6	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$
21 Ravenducks do.	6 6	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$	$\frac{9}{16}$
22 Cordage	3 3	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{16}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
23 Pot and pearl ashes	2 2	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{12}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{2}{5}$
24 Rhubarb	3 3	$\frac{1}{8}$	$\frac{1}{4}$	$\frac{1}{24}$	$\frac{5}{7}$	$\frac{5}{7}$

The regulations of this bank are by no means of so extraordinary a nature as those of the aid bank, and are not interesting enough to be inserted. The giving discount for bills at nine months, shews that the true spirit of the banking system is not known, and that lending on all sorts of produce, perishable as

well as what is not, must rather hurt than assist commercial people. It would be very easy to prove, that aid of this sort, prevents individuals from augmenting their capitals; and, as capital and industry, jointly constitute the wealth of a state, it must do harm rather than good.

College of Commerce.

It is no doubt of importance to every government wishing to promote any particular object, or carry into execution more effectually any particular view, to establish purposely a board, under its immediate protection and sanction, (distinct from other establishments), that more minute attention may be given, and more prompt measures adopted.

On this principle, the Russian government have, at Petersburg, established a College of Commerce, or, properly speaking, a Board of Trade, consisting of a certain number of directors, with a president, who take into consideration, and under their direction, every thing relating to the trade of the empire; and to that board applications must at all times be directed. It has the control of the brackers, brokers, and every department connected with commerce; in matters of dispute, it acts, likewise, in a judicial capacity; and the only appeal from its decision, in case of the dissatisfaction of either party, is to the senate, where 200 rubles must be deposited: a certificate being produced from the secretary of the senate, that the deposit is made, when the requisite documents are given from the College of Commerce, and proceedings commence in the superior court.

It is through this college, that the English only have the privilege specially provided for by treaty, to appeal in cases of dispute, or for redress from the Russian subject; and through this channel only it is, that the native subject must apply for redress against the British merchants; amongst whom, if any disputes or controversies arise, the directors of the College of Commerce, very wisely order it for arbitration among the British merchants, who are selected for that purpose.

This is a sort of court of equity in commercial matters,—the decisions are prompt and attended with little expense, as the impartiality of the judges is at least equal, to what could be found in the common courts of law: it is attended with advantage.—Here it may not be improper to observe, that it is certainly of advantage in commercial matters, that differences should be decided speedily, not only because witnesses are ge-

nerally ready, and the facts recent, and well remembered, but that it prevents the interruption and suspension of business, which would otherwise be occasioned. Inferior and prompt courts of this sort may be always corrected by the power of appeal, therefore they deserve approbation.

The Brackers.

The principal articles of Russian exportation, must be examined or bracked by competent sworn brackers: for this purpose, in 1790, sixteen Russian, and fourteen foreign brackers for hemp; five Russian, and three German for tallow and oil; four Russian, and three German for herrings, (the Russian herring-brackers also brack caviar and isinglass); one Russian, and two German for tobacco; five Russian, and three German for yufts; two Russian, and one German for horse-hair and hog's bristles; one Russian and two German for hare-skins, were appointed.

Such are the excellent regulations relating to the brackers, that if, through any neglect or fraud, an inferior quality is passed which ought not to be, the bracker, whose name is affixed in some articles, and especially appointed for others, is liable to a very severe punishment as soon as the proof is produced, so that a precaution like the one mentioned prevents the possibility of an inferior article being substituted for the real one, and every merchant is sure that what he purchases is the very article he agrees for.

The merchant, in his purchases, has only to settle with a broker, who is likewise approved by the College of Commerce, and who makes a contract betwixt the buyer and seller. The goods are received and the business is despatched.

The articles subject to brack are:*

Hemp, flax, tallow, hides, yufts, isinglass, glue, caviar, hare-skins, bristles, wax, cow and horse hair, linseed, hempseed, and train oil, tobacco, rhubarb, masts, pot and pearl ashes, saltpetre, castor of beaver, &c. &c. &c.

A certain rate is fixed to be paid to the bracker by the purchaser, which is very reasonable.

* Some articles are stamped; for instance, the casks with tallow and oil; flax with a lead tally annexed by a string; hemp in the inside of the bales by a wooden tally, with the bracker's name written thereon.

Of the Exchange between Russia and other Countries.

After having treated of the produce of Russia, and of its commerce and connexion with other nations, as well as of its interior arrangements for aiding and facilitating trade, we shall give an account of its exchange; premising, however, that, as Petersburg, the capital of Russia, is situated at one extremity of Europe, it can never become an intermediate place, for the transacting such business between other nations. All its transactions of this sort do now, and probably always will, amount to nothing beyond what arises out of its own mercantile affairs, that is, of its sales and purchases. Russia never will be a country in which agency business can be carried on for others, to any extent; but, as its improvement proceeds to a greater height, the produce for exportation will increase in quantity, and the imports from other nations will augment nearly in the same proportion.

The subject of exchange is here rendered more complicated by the operations of the state, and its financial arrangements, which, being unknown at the time, cannot be ascertained correctly, particularly as they are but little understood, and, of course opposite maxims frequently pursued. Besides, Russia is situated at too remote an extremity to come generally into the influence of exchange operations; so that we must consider the present observations as rather local.

The earliest account we find, relating to the Russian exchange, was at Mosco, in 1540, when the ruble was at one hundred and three quarters stivers upon Amsterdam. In 1633, it was at one hundred stivers; at a time, too, that the intrinsic worth of the ruble was eighty-six and seven-tenth stivers; it was at eighty-nine and two-sevenths in 1695, in which year the exchange on Holland was at one hundred and fourteen stivers. The average exchange at Archangel and Mosco, whilst the intrinsic worth of the ruble remained at the same rate, was ninety-five stivers on Amsterdam; and that year only eighty-eight schillings on Hamburg; on which latter city nothing was again done, in the exchange way, till 1781, when it opened at thirty-six and three-quarters schillings banco, and declined, before the close of the year, to thirty-three.

In the year 1695 only the exchange on London was at one hundred and twenty pence, with the exception of only one year, 1710, when it was at eighty pence. We find no direct

course on England till the year 1763, when a direct course was fixed on London, which has continued ever since, and when the silver ruble was worth thirty-six and a half stivers Hollands; but the course, in that year, opened at forty-nine stivers on Amsterdam, and fifty-five pence on London; since which period the exchange gradually declined, till 1793, when it was at twenty-two and a half stivers on Amsterdam, and at twenty-two and three-fourths pence on London, since when it has experienced great fluctuations.

In order more fully to elucidate these observations, a table of the exchange of Petersburg will be found on London, which forms the criterion for the whole empire, from January, 1788, down to the present period; which being compared with various political and financial events in Russia, will shew the effect they have severally had upon the exchange.

It has been the constant and wise aim of the Russian government to establish the credit of her paper upon a par with specie. Many attempts and expedients have been devised, some of which have operated in a contrary way, and they have generally all terminated, in increasing the circulation of paper.

In every country where paper is great in quantity, and has a forced circulation, its exchange, for gold and silver, becomes difficult: but as the difficulty is not always the same, the difference, or *agio*, is variable, and this operates on the exchange with foreign countries; for all the fluctuations that the operations of commerce occasion, are trifling compared with the effects produced by such a cause.

This, indeed, is easily understood, by recurring to first principles; for the exchange between two countries, where payments are made, in money, can always be regulated, at the greatest dilemma, by transporting gold or silver from the one to the other; but, where the payments of a country are in paper, for which real money cannot be obtained, bills of exchange have a relation to the credit of that paper money.

When more paper is issued than the circulation of a country requires, that alone will reduce its value; but if we add to this violent and arbitrary measures, the evil becomes infinitely greater.—The Emperor Paul attempted, by an edict, to regulate the course of exchange, when he might just as well have attempted, by an edict, to hinder the waters from overflowing Petersburg in a violent westerly wind. In short, every attempt to regulate the state of the exchange, only made it worse in the end, by increasing the circulation of paper, which was

the root of the evil. The history of the French exchange, during the reign of their assignats, is so well known, and the effect so similar to that of the Russian paper, though on a much greater scale, that it is not necessary to say any more on the subject, only to refer to the table under the head of Petersburg.

It must be observed, that when bank-notes were first issued, in 1769, they even bore a premium; soon after that period, till 1786, there was an agio allowed, from one to two per cent. on silver. It was not till 1790 any difference was made betwixt gold and bank-notes, and, in that year, eighteen per cent. was allowed in payment of bank-notes instead of gold. Previously (in 1788) thirteen per cent. for silver; in 1790, twenty per cent.; in 1793, forty-one per cent.; in 1794, forty-six and a half per cent.; and, in 1795 and 1796, forty-nine per cent.; and in 1799, at one time, from fifty-six to fifty-eight per cent. was the agio allowed for silver, payable in bank-notes; but it soon after fell again, and, in 1803, so low, that bank-notes became about equal with specie. This did not continue long. A reference to the exchange-table will pretty nearly ascertain the agio betwixt bank assignments and specie, at whatever rate the exchange is, under thirty-six and a half Hollands stivers per ruble, or from thirty-seven to thirty-eight pence sterling.

Such are the fluctuations at Petersburg, in the exchange, that instances have been known of variations, in half an hour from two to four per cent. and so limited is its business this way, that remittances made by government, or the speculations of an individual, will frequently influence it materially. There are other causes which always affect this exchange, at one time or other; but it does not come within the view of this work to enter into details. The Russian government will, in the course of time and by experience, most likely take effectual measures to remedy the evil, and bring her paper currency upon a par with specie, which is no difficult thing under her situation: it is surprising the only method has not long ago been effectually adopted.

When the courses of exchange in Europe are open and free, it is sometimes most profitable, at Petersburg, to draw in money upon Amsterdam or Hamburg, instead of drawing direct on London. For instance, a house at Petersburg wishes to draw 10,000 rubles, for English account, either upon Hamburg, Amsterdam, or direct on London, which ever appears most advantageous. If it is found that the latest account brings

advice that the exchange at Hamburg and Amsterdam on London is at

Hamburg— schillings Flem. per pound ster. at 2 months date.

Amsterdam— ditto ditto ditto

And at Petersburg that it is

— pence per ruble at 3 months date on London.

— schillings banco per ruble at 65 days on Hamburg.

— stivers per ruble at 65 days on Amsterdam.

If there is cause for some expected change, before the draft becomes due, betwixt Amsterdam and Hamburg, and London, the operation will be made accordingly. To remit from London to Amsterdam, or Hamburg, to meet those drafts, is almost always attended with a certain profit.*

* It may be useful, for the information of the commercial reader, to observe, that, by an ukase which took place March 1, 1793, all bills drawn in Russia, must be on stamped paper, the sums as follows:

10 to	1000 rubles	is	1 ruble stamp.
1000 to	5000 do.	is	3 do.
5000 to	10000 do.	is	5 do.
10000 to	25000 do.	is	12 do.
25000 to	50000 do.	is	20 do.
50000 to	75000 do.	is	30 do.
75000 to	100000 do.	is	45 do.

Also all declarations of ship-masters at entry, papers for ships and galliots clearing outwards, certificates on goods incoming to be forwarded beyond the borders of the country, ukases for paying the proceeds of goods left unentered in the custom-house, and sold by public auction, all attestations of sea worthiness given annually from the city; ship-masters, wharf, and all custom-house acts; also all powers of attorney, copies of wills, money accounts, contracts or agreements, and, in a word, all acts to be produced in a court of justice, or any government office, shall be written on stamped paper, and unless they are so, no process to be had on them in any court whatever.

This ukase further states,

“For the accommodation of trade and the saving of postage, a thinner paper shall be prepared and stamped, on which the acts and documents mentioned above, and intended to be forwarded to foreign countries, may be written, and each such sheet shall be sold at 50 co.

“All papers to which the custom-house seal is affixed, shall pay the established seal-duty.”

CHAPTER X.

Of the whole maritime Commerce of Russia. Table of Ships of all Nations trading to that Empire. The same, specifying the particular Ports. Vessels in the Coasting Trade of Russia. General Tables of the Trade of that Empire. Table of the Amount of Exports and Imports of the Empire of Russia, from 1741 to 1803. Observations on the Trade betwixt Britain and Russia. Table, shewing the Amount of the Trade between those two Nations from 1700 to 1804. The Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Russia during 1800, and 1802. New Duties on Importation into Russia, fixed in 1805.

THAT the increase of the trade of the empire of Russia may be farther illustrated, and to give some idea of the proportion of trade all powers have with that country, and the quantity of shipping each has employed in it, the following table, for the year 1802, is here inserted.

States and Nations.	Ships.		Arrived in Russ. Emp.		Sailed from the Russian Empire.			
	Laden.	Laftage	Unlad.	Laftage	Laden.	Laftage	Unlad.	Laftage
Russian	216	12260	53	4694	266	19672	3	95
English	329	34220	642	65291	893	92861	39	3663
Dutch	35	2761	159	17543	177	19185		
Swedish	226	10394	215	11684	433	21250	12	606
Danish	154	7851	209	11876	350	20343		
Prussian	133	9550	269	20922	386	30992	4	313
Lubec	152	7885	14	1391	148	8474	1	54
Rostoc	23	881	20	1124	36	1757	1	48
Hamburg	22	2592	32	4316	57	8158		
Bremen	17	1450	35	2995	51	4479		
French	8	794	8	660	15	1304		
Spanish	7	519			6	404		
Portuguese	8	476			8	476		
American	38	3468	26	2738	63	6393		
Mecklenburg	5	288	63	3630	72	4189	1	65
Oldenburg	4	261	20	1047	23	1200		
Papenburg	6	344	15	658	18	902		
Münster	1	38	24	1926	26	1867		
Austrian	70	6925	73	7018	137	14992		
Republic of the } Seven Islands }	17	1040	24	235	13	1046	1	27
Turkish	199	7181	207	5325	378	12942	4	77
Total	1660	110880	2070	160075	3556	272949	66	4948

The English had first the chief command of the Russia trade, which they acquired by their capital, honourable, and liberal manner of dealing, thereby securing a respect and preference over other foreigners in their commercial dealings. But, as the Russians became enriched through the capital furnished by the English to carry on their commerce, they became less dependant, in the end, on their old benefactors; and during the last wars of Britain, acquired considerable fortunes; insomuch as to have given a new turn to the trade. The British formerly had so much influence, in Russia, that the prices were tolerably accurately calculated, upon the Royal Exchange of London, what they would be the following year; even many houses till within late years, used to contract at a sterling price delivered on board in Russia, but this plan has ceased since the Russians have got sufficient capital of their own, together with strict unanimity and combination amongst themselves, which, with the aid of the bank already described, enable them to keep up the prices, and make foreigners pay what they please, knowing that when the ships are arrived, they must be loaded.

If the foreigner has not secured his goods, he must give the Russians their price, rather than let the vessel go back dead freighted, there being no other resource. None, in general, have been the cause of raising the prices, or suffered more from it than the Americans; for, not having secured, in winter, their quantities by previous purchase or contract; when they arrive, which in general is the first open water, they immediately purchase, for the sake of despatch, at any price, before supplies have got down, taking what has remained over the winter. The Americans have paid dear for this method of doing their business, nevertheless their trade has increased, which will be seen by a table under the head of Petersburg. The prices in the early part of the season have been influenced by this practice, and have continued high afterwards, to the advantage of the Russians; who perhaps having got their goods down at an earlier period than usual, or before their stipulated time of delivery, in their contract, will sell goods for ready money to the Americans, and defer fulfilling the contract with others to the last day, in hopes of replacing the goods advantageously, and in the mean time profitably trafficking with the money; for no people are more keen or clever than the Russians, when they have interest in view.

As the Russian trade has undergone a very great change from what it was even a few years ago, and the command of it now got into the hands of the Russians, it will become less profitable to the foreign individuals engaged in it, and to this nation at

large in particular, for so tenaciously are advantages held by the government, for the native merchants, that no others can sell the same articles on the spot; in short, they cannot traffic with produce. If a foreign merchant buys, according to the laws, he must ship it off, he cannot resell it: this restriction is in favour of the native merchants, and the system which has been adopted by government in establishing the bank mentioned, has been the means to enable them to raise the prices to a rate beyond what the respective articles may be produced and manufactured in other countries, which may occasion various evils to the Russians themselves in the end. The ships however being arrived, the Russians know they must be loaded at any price, however unfavourable the exchange may be, which is frequently another disadvantage; and these causes, of late years, have occasioned the Russian trade to be a losing one to foreign individuals and to all other nations, and a most lucrative one to itself.

It has been observed by some foreign writers that Russia might become a considerable maritime power, and be the carrier of her own produce; but if we consider the limited coast of Russia, without external colonies or fisheries, and her natural situation, blocked up from five to seven months in the year, it is contrary to the nature of things: even the small coasting trade she has, is partly carried on by foreign vessels, and what little they have of their own, from the limited coast, can never support a great naval power, nor form expert sailors. The state of the coasting trade of the whole empire, in 1802, was

	For Transport.		For Fishing.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Russians	736 (266) small	25866	281	—
English	15	1525	—	—
Swedish	4	195	—	—
Danish	8	238	—	—
Prussian	2	68	—	—
Lubec	3	143	—	—
Bremen	1	56	—	—
Hamburg	2	198	—	—
Papenburg	1	84	—	—
Oldenburg	1	35	—	—
Turkish	6	147	—	—
Total	779 and 266 small vessels for sea.	28555	281	—

In order to give the reader, at one view, together; the articles of import and export are classed under their re on the boundaries of European Russia, and that of Asia, as well as

VIEW OF T

Articles.	In the Baltic.	In the White Sea.	Blatic Boundaries.	
			ient of and To- Buchapart of Saifaki.	Government of Irkoutsik, with China.
	St. Petersburg, Riga, Cronstadt, Pernau, Narva, Arensburg, Wyburg, Liebau, Fredericksham, Windau, Revel, and Hapfal.	Archangel and Onega.	Od Orcl, Ovb, etropav-ri, asnoyarsk, Keraye, She-Buj, oxakoff, Mogorsk, urma.	In Kiakhta and Zurukaitu.
	Worth in Rubles.		Worth in rubles.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
Consumable } Articles }	11330595	7041008	387404	1383142
Metals	4586074	3758040	29800	399124
Raw materials	5743572	30265817	63414	2398985
Manufactures	10961133	5589720	61988	593604
Living animals	5439	28		479
Precious stones				
Pearls	12170			
Other articles	344435	262521	7126	20683
	32983418	46917134	5497321	4796017

The whole Importation by sea and lde.
It is generally reckoned that
It would then be in

TRANSIT 7

<i>Exportation of European Goods to Asia.</i>						<i>Importat</i>
					worth in ro.	
Consumable articles	-	-	-	-	57350	—
Metals	-	-	-	-	2054800	—
Raw materials	-	-	-	-	858545	—
Manufactures	-	-	-	-	2592053	—
Precious stones	-	-	-	-	34925	—
Corals	-	-	-	-	39502	—
Divers goods	-	-	-	-	3722	—
Total					5640897	

In order still further to detail the whole trade of Russia, and to bring it into a narrower compass, as well as to shew the unprecedented rapid rise it has experienced in its commerce, and the pitch at which it has already arrived, the following statement is given :

The total Imports and Exports of Russia.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Customs.
1742	3568085	4567422	955302
1745	3898674	5249366	1031845
1750	6013371	7152829	1227677
1755	6641561	8182770	2412750
1760	7358051	9875013	2625036
1765	9200464	13098824	3126690
1770	11374259	14989134	3190998
1775	12469372	18557279	3290670
1780	15447113	19656714	4078702
1785	16432542	25873592	5285680
1790	31132267	32754733	6958291
1791	35113194	34290225	6525185
1792	37521115	40696733	7228711
1793	26118763	43481089	5017338
1794	34529757	45474330	5294373
1795	36652091	53772284	5424026
1796	42878565	67670464	6470585
1797	34931701	56683560	6090687
1802	56530094	63277759	—

Observations on the Trade betwixt Great Britain and Russia.

The exports from Russia have already had ample details, it is therefore necessary we should make some remarks on our exports to that country, particularly of foreign manufactures and merchandise, distinct from British produce and manufactures, which in the export from Britain stand in rank as under:

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|
| 1. Woollens. | 8. Earthen ware and glass. |
| 2. Refined sugar. | 9. Alum. |
| 3. Cotton. | 10. Iron and steel ware, brass |
| 4. Lead. | wire, &c. |
| 5. Horses. | 11. Stockings. |
| 6. Tin | 12. Salt. |
| 7. Tin plates. | 13. Coal. |

The remainder of the articles are of various descriptions, but of less importance.

In making a comparison betwixt the staple manufactures of the two countries, woollens in England, and linens in Russia, the balance is considerable in favour of the latter. The value of goods exported from England to Russia, in 1786, was estimated as under :

Velverets and other cotton stuffs exported	}	£.42,000
from England to Russia about		
Calimancoes, and other goods from Norwich		32,000
Shalloons, flannels, and baize, &c.		36,000
		110,000
The value of cloth about		80,000
		£.190,000

The official amount of linens, imported into Britain from Russia, upon an average in the two following periods, stand thus:

				England.	Scotland.
1790	to	1794	5 years	£.131,835	£. 8,131
1795	to	1799	5 years	195,238	11,399

The average of the exports of woollens, from England to Russia, for the same period.

				England.	Scotland.
1790	to	1794	5 years	£.108,308	Only wearing
1795	to	1799	5 years	138,000	apparel.

This comparison of the two principal articles of manufacture of each country is, in a double sense, worthy of consideration: on the one hand, of our trifling export of woollens; and, on the other, of our greater import of linens. The exportation of cotton, stuffs, and articles, stands thus:

				England.	Scotland.
1790	to	1794	Average of 5 years	£.20,760	£.14,570
1795	to	1799	ditto ditto	30,000	6,395

The total amount* of the importation and exportation of Great Britain to and from Russia, from 1700 till 1785, each

* The sterling value here mentioned is the official value, according to the custom-house accounts.

five years, will shew the progressive increase of the trade, and the balance against Britain.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1701	£.90581	£.69201	1745	£.294702	£.62672
1705	142134	74247	1750	584091	111846
1710	115725	212318	1755	661740	85327
1715	241876	105153	1760	474680	38710
1720	169932	92229	1765	967339	76170
1725	250315	24847	1770	1046610	145743
1730	258802	46275	1775	850112	196229
1735	252068	54335	1782	1185844	196577
1740	300751	62287	1785	1606668	233998

An Account of the Value of British Produce and Manufactures distinguished from those of Foreign exported from England, also from Scotland to Russia; from the 5th January, 1786, to the 5th January, 1804.

	From England, British Produce and Manufactures.	From England, Foreign Produce or Manufactures.	British Produce and Manufactures from Scotland.	Foreign Produce or Manufactures from Scotland.	Gross Amount.
1786	£.197084	£.87446	£.9662	£.1491	£.295683
1787	292319	99286	4534	1710	307849
1788	244648	84178	28383	1280	358489
1789	195642	95582	17150	143	308517
1790	244412	187328	21507	1041	434288
1791	274422	290788	6820	1324	573854
1792	400493	370288	28280	1699	800760
1793	182399	123091	15284	53	320827
1794	215156	255324	25364	62	495906
1795	347874	466560	45626	2205	862265
1796	350505	372779	43426	185	766895
1797	241140	216519	15342	1203	474204
1798	350702	311410	29365	301	691778
1799	403432	334148	25177	6951	769708
1800	548456	465276	8917	2684	1025333
1801	579759	323082	14957	2044	919842
1802	804304	534993	30108	6994	1376399
1803	—	—	53614	—	1338812
1804	—	—	59228	—	—

Value of Merchandise imported into England, and Scotland, from Russia, from the 5th January, 1786, to the 5th January, 1804, distinguishing each Year and Kingdom.

	England. Value.	Scotland.	Total.
1786	£.1160304	£.259285	£.1419589
1787	1315198	346607	1661805
1788	1629675	286546	1916221
1789	1284014	187236	1471250
1790	1400634	309739	1710373
1791	1192572	356105	1548677
1792	1427454	281216	1708670
1793	1537990	266034	1804024
1794	1394140	395307	1789447
1795	1507429	350548	1857977
1796	2044840	465243	2510083
1797	1447999	259505	1707504
1798	1911509	505319	2416828
1799	2016903	645351	2662254
1800	1990295	391803	2382098
1801	2001663	245214	2246877
1802	1834565	347864	2182429
1803	1472908	431155	1904063
1804	—	482196	—

The following Table shews the Trade and Navigation between Great Britain and Russia, during three very important Years, when British Property was seized, the Battle of Copenhagen took place, and the general Peace, when Trade may be supposed to be unrestrained, and to have found its Level.

Years.	Value of Imports from Russia into Great Britain.	Exports from G. Britain to Russia.				Total of British and Foreign Merchandise exported to Russia.				Ships Inwards.						Ships Outwards.					
		British Manufactures.		Foreign Merchandise.		£. s. d.	£. s. d.	vells.	tons.	men.	vess.	Foreign.		men.	vess.	British.		men.	vess.	Foreign.	
		£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.	£. s. d.							tons.	men.			tons.	men.			tons.	men.
1800	£. s. d. 2382098 14 0	£. s. d. 557374 5 11	£. s. d. 467960 18 1	£. s. d. 1025335 4 0	vells. 766	tons. 163464	men. 7517	vess. 55	tons. 13114	men. 617	vess. 693	tons. 165219	men. 7701	vess. 129	tons. 25866	men. 1180					
1801	£. s. d. 2246878 18 11	£. s. d. 594717 5 9	£. s. d. 325126 8 4	£. s. d. 919843 14 1	vells. 854	tons. 174840	men. 7992	vess. 135	tons. 27358	men. 1217	vess. 593	tons. 119870	men. 5838	vess. 200	tons. 38570	men. 1700					
1802	£. s. d. 2182430 14 3	£. s. d. 834412 5 3	£. s. d. 541987 10 3	£. s. d. 1376399 15 6	vells. 779	tons. 166128	men. 8767	vess. 16	tons. 4704	men. 212	vess. 484	tons. 101285	men. 4830	vess. 36	tons. 10071	men. 421					

In taking a general view of the trade of Russia, which is all that remains to be done, after having entered so fully into the details, and furnished tables from which every circumstance of importance may be seen, we cannot help observing how amazingly advantageous its trade is with the British dominions. Not only the amount of the sales is equal nearly to those of all other nations, but it is from Britain only that Russia receives a balance in cash. Were the trade suspended, the importation of wines, brandies, and foreign produce and manufactures, from other countries, would totally absorb the monied capital of Russia; and it is not going too far to say, that such an event would do it more harm than any other that could take place. Russia can only grow wealthy by internal industry, and its connexion with other nations; but those two things are dependent on each other. The introduction of foreign goods, stimulates the people to industry, but they could not be introduced in half the quantity they now are, if it were not for Britain.

This statement of the case cannot be too much enforced, as there is evidently a disposition in Russia to undervalue the connexion, and to put it to a risk for advantages that are merely in expectation, and that certainly would never be realized. We have already, in our remarks on the armed neutrality, had occasion to speak of this; but it cannot be too strictly impressed on the mind, as Russia evidently gives the direction to the views of the courts of Sweden and Denmark, and therefore, in point of politics, may be considered as regulating the north.

In the relation between nations we are always obliged to state values nominally, but the reader should keep in mind that the nominal is not the real value, as compared with that in another country. In the case of Russia, money is certainly of three times the value that it is in England; so that tallow, iron, timber, &c. produced by Russia, are sold at an immense price: when they receive 60*s.* a cwt. for tallow, it is as if we were receiving 9*l.* and so of other produce.

While the Russians can produce things so cheap, and sell them so dear, they must be increasing in wealth; and it is not improbable that as they certainly could afford to sell much cheaper than they do, as they increase in industry and capital, they will reduce their prices. The great rise of the prices of Russia produce, that has taken place of late years, has arisen from the demand increasing faster than the production; but this will cease, and the Russians, in order to obtain a more extensive market, will be obliged to reduce their prices. This they will naturally do in the same way with other nations; that

is, they will come down to such a price as will merely afford a fair profit. We cannot so well judge of the productions in any thing else as in iron, the value of which is regulated by the price of fuel and the wages of labour; yet, though both are three times as high, or more, we can produce iron here cheaper, than we can import it from Russia.

Though it is easy to see that many mistakes are committed by the Russian government in its endeavours to forward commerce, yet those endeavours are incessant and have already produced great effects; its immense extent, the line of politics that has been followed, and the opening of ports on the Black sea, will tend to civilize the interior of the country, which, together with the canals that are carrying on, must in a few years produce great changes.

When we look at the past, we may anticipate the future. The rise of Petersburg, the general increase of commerce, and the vast augmentation of power; the rapid rise of Odessa, and the numerous efforts made to hasten the progress towards prosperity, leave no doubt, as to the important part that nation will soon act on the theatre of Europe.

New Regulation of Duties on the Importation of the following Articles, by an Ukase of 27-29th March, 1805, payable in Bank Notes.

		New Duty, all in Russia Money.	Old Duty, including 50 per cent. Ad- vance for Dollars.
		ro. co.	ro. co.
SUGARS.			
Canary, half ditto, and raffinade	per pood	3 12	3 60
Melis, small and large loaves		2 40	3 0
Common, called lump		2 4	2 40
Raw sugar		0 20	0 45
COLOURS, PAINTS, &c.			
Orpiment	per pood	1 11	1 80
White lead		0 30	0 90
Cinnabar		2 46	2 70
Madder		0 60	0 90
Turmerick		0 42	0 45
Indigo of all sorts		6 84	7 50

	New Duty, all in Ruffia Money.	Old Duty, including 50 per cent.-Advance for Dollars.
Mummy and brown red	1 14	1 35
Rosalyar	0 18	0 45
Ultra marine	per lb. 0 21	0 50
Umber	per pood 0 12	0 15
Dutch pink	0 30	0 36
White paint	0 30	0 36
Other paints, in shells and boxes	per box 0 18	6 per c.

SILKS.

Velvets, plain and of one colour, without gold or silver	per pood } 4 74	7 50
Silk stuff, of one colour, plain	4 5	6 0
Gros de Tours ditto	1 56	4 50
Gros de Naples ditto	2 46	4 50
Mohair and silk	per lb. 3 24	4 50
Satin	2 43	4 50
Taffety and serge	1 80	4 50
Velvets, one colour	per arsh. 0 60	0 75
Silk handkerchiefs, 1 arsheen, 1 versk. and broader, with & without flowers	pr. doz. } 24 21	22 50
Ditto, thin grisct and taffety	12 69	13 50
Ditto ditto, 13 versk. to 1 arsh.	6 12	9 0
Ditto, Persian manner, large	16 8	9 0
Ditto smaller	15 3	4 50
Silk, shag, or bays	per arsh. 0 45	0 60
Shinel	per lb. 1 0	7 50
White and black crape	per arsh. 0 15	0 45
Gauze, or tiffany	0 6	0 75
Turkish stuff, with gold and silver, to the Black sea and sea of Azoph	per lb. } 3 57	6 0
Ditto. without ditto	2 58	3 0

WOOLLENS,

COLOURED, PLAIN, STRIPED, &c.

Ettamines, plain and double	per arsh. 0 9	} 30 per cent. on value, which in dollars is equal to 45 per cent.
Barracan	0 18	
Serge de Rome	0 9	
Druggets	0 9	
Tabanets	0 9	
Calimancoes and half ditto	0 6 $\frac{3}{4}$	

	New Duty, all in Russia Money.	Old Duty, including 50 per cent. Ad- vance for Dollars.
Camblets and half ditto, and mixed worsted } silk and cotton	0 15	} on value, which 30 per cent. in dollars is equal to 45 per cent.
Crape, wool and worsted	0 6 ³ / ₄	
Grisets, everlastings and such like, plain } and mixed	0 9	
Shalloons	0 12	
Damask, woollen	0 9	
Flag, cloth or buntin	0 12	} 30 per cent. in dollars is equal to 45 per cent.
Spagniolet	0 57	
Kersymere	0 42	
Half-cloth	0 57	

It was intended to have given a table of the customs in Russia, but, from the state of matters betwixt Great Britain and Russia, some new changes may be expected; therefore, rather than run the risk of misleading the reader, they are omitted.

BOOK II.

CHAPTER I.

OF PRUSSIA IN GENERAL.

Its Seas, Haffs, and Rivers, Canals, Produce, and Manufactures.

PRUSSIA is bounded on the north by the Baltic sea, by means of which she carries on the principal part of her commerce. In the North sea, she has a small part of her dominions into which the Ems, which rises in Westphalia, falls, running by Emden. The entrance of this river is rather dangerous, but will be clearly described, when treating of the North sea, or trade of Germany.

The house of Prussia has, within the space of a century and a half, established a basis for its future maritime and commercial greatness in the Baltic sea, by its acquisition of part of Pomerania, Polish Prussia, of Dantzic and Thorn, and that part of Poland which is most favourably situated for the Baltic trade; the whole length of these districts forming a coast of nearly four hundred miles on the shore of the Baltic; in which distance, some of the finest rivers fall into it.

To a commercial work it is of no importance to enter into details, or descriptions of the variety of smaller states, and portions of larger ones, which, altogether collected under one general name, and subject to the same government, are now known by the kingdom of Prussia. It is necessary however, to observe, that the King of Prussia, conjointly with the Emperor, is protector of several of the free imperial cities of Lower Sax-

ony, on the Elbe, and the Weser; and that Emden (though it will be treated of separately) forms a part of his dominions. As one of the objects in this book is to give a distinct notion of the northern channels, by which we may communicate with the interior of Germany, and the continent in general, free from the interruption of France. Since we are shut out from the ports of Flanders and Holland, it is of greater consequence to adhere to real distinctions, and practicable means, than to be regulated by political divisions.

Prussia, Swedish Pomerania, Mecklenburg, and Lubec, which is one of the Hans Towns of Lower Saxony, extends all along the south shore of the Baltic; and through those countries, and by the Ems, Elbe, and Weser, and the cities on the North sea, (which are still under the protection of Prussia and the emperor), the whole trade to the interior of the continent of Europe is now carried on.

The lakes in Prussia, or haffs as they are called, or more properly branches of the Baltic sea, are the Courish haff, which is of the greatest extent, and runs directly south-west from Memel, getting a considerable breadth, and reaches inland, not sixty miles from Königsberg. The Frische haff forms a long lake, betwixt Königsberg and Elbing, having its communication with the sea at Pillau. It is also, by the branches of the Vistula, connected with Dantzic; and through this channel it is, that a regular trade is kept up betwixt Dantzic, Elbing, and Königsberg, in decked vessels.

There is another haff, which is in Pomerania, formed by the islands of Usedom and Wollin, betwixt which vessels must pass, going up to Stettin. This haff communicates with the Baltic, by three different channels, the principal of which is Swinemunde.

The great rivers of Prussia, or rather those by which she carries on a considerable commerce, are the Njemen, or Memel, which falls into the Courish haff; the Pregel, which falls into the Frische haff at Königsberg. The most important of all is the Vistula, or Weichsel, as it is termed, which divides itself into three branches, two of which, and one of them the most considerable, running by Marienburg, falls into the Frische haff also; the other branch falls into the bay of Dantzic, four miles below that city; and the Oder, running by Stettin, falls into the Great haff below that city.

Those are the principal rivers of Prussia, which, with the canals connected with them, will be described more particularly when treating of the ports of Memel, Königsberg, Dantzic, and

Stettin, as their internal intercourse is such as to cause some distinct branches of commerce, at least the latter port; whilst the others, besides the produce of what must now be termed Prussia, have their trade more or less, from Austria and Russia.

The produce exported from Prussia consists of some hemp and flax, linseed, a little tallow, ashes, bristles, and fir timber, chiefly from Memel and Königsberg; likewise, at periods, grain, but more particularly, and in great quantities from Dantzic, and, in less proportion, from Elbing; also fir and oak timber, plank, and staves. These latter articles almost exclusively from Stettin; and, by this port, latterly, linens from Silesia, since the blockade of the Elbe.

No country in Europe has yet aimed so much as Prussia, at the improvement of manufactures, encouraging them, on the one hand, and supporting them, by prohibitions of similar manufactures from other countries, on the other. However they may have aimed at perfection, in point of appearance, it is that only, which at first procures them sale, the superiority of British manufactures, is always acknowledged by others, and they will ever command a preference. Yet, the Prussian manufactures are in a very flourishing state, particularly that of the blue cloth, and woollens in general, velvet, Manchester goods, silk stockings, ribands, chintz, and cotton manufactures; also fancy articles, carpets, leather, hardware, sugar refineries, gun powder, and porcelain, the painting of which is inimitable.

It was estimated that, six years ago, the value of Prussian manufactures was

	Rix dollars.
Woollen	10000000
Linen	11000000
Silk	4000000
Cotton	3000000
Leather	2200000
Hats	500000
Paper	300000
Gold and silver lace	400000
Gold and silver thread in imitation of the Lyons	53000
Copper	200000
Brass	185000
Iron and steel	3000000
Tin and Lead	100000
Glass, and looking-glass	300000

	Rix dollars.
Porcelain and China	300000
Fine earthenware	100000
Amber works	50000
To these may be added hardware manufac- tures, clocks, watches, and the whole mau- factures from the mineral works, including gun-powder, together estimated at	5000000
All kinds of tools, instruments, and iron work used in ship building	
Furniture manufactured, about	6000000
Sugar refineries	1700000
Tobacco	1400000
Starch	150000
Wax-bleaching	100000
Soap manufacture	400000
Oil	300000

The whole amount of these manufactures of Prussia, in the year 1799, exclusive of beer, brandy, and vinegar, was estimated at about forty-one millions of rix dollars, or about seven millions sterling, by a German author; but, even at that period, they were under-rated: it is certain that, since then, these manufactures have increased to a surprising degree, even within the last two or three years, particularly in linens, woollens, cotton, tobacco, and refined sugar.

Though the manufactures carried on in Prussia are of great importance, yet none is so essentially necessary, for our purpose, to inquire into, as that of linen, carried to a great extent and considerable perfection.

Manufacture of Linen in the Prussian States.

There is hardly any thing produced by the industry of man in which a more extensive trade is carried on than in linen; it is of very universal utility, and can be manufactured in great or in small, and most countries produce the material from which it is made. No doubt can be entertained, in point of the linen manufacture, that Silesia has gained great reputation in the world, for its durability and excellence in general. That they make of as good or better quality in Ireland, is certain; but they at one time were not equally considerate in the bleaching part. The chymical process for bleaching once introduced into that kingdom was wisely done away, otherwise it might have been detrimental; while the gentle process in Silesia has been inva-

riably used. Their cloth is generally three and four months in bleaching, and the lyes made very mild and moderately used. Experience has shewn the reputation Silesia linen has obtained in South and North America, and the West Indies. But the Irish linen manufacture must shortly command a preference to any other. Great care and attention is now paid to it by every individual, but particularly by the Right Honourable J. Foster, who has so patriotically promoted the linen manufacture of that kingdom.

France, the United Provinces, and Switzerland, formerly carried on a very great trade in the linen manufacture; but, at present, Silesia, Bohemia, Westphalia, Suabia, the Lausitz, and the countries belonging to the house of Brunswick, excel particularly in their linen manufactures, the produce of which is exported to almost every part of the world. The greatest part of the Silesia linen goes through Higher Saxony and Luneburg to Hamburg: it is likewise conveyed down the Oder, and from thence by means of canals, which connect it with the Elbe.* The Hamburg merchants exported it in great quantities to Spain, Portugal, England, and the United States of America; to the latter country, vast quantities, especially when the commerce between England, France, and Holland, is interrupted by war, which gives an opportunity to the American merchants to carry on a kind of contraband trade with the British, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Dutch possessions in the West Indies and South America, for which they usually barter coffee, sugar, cotton, indigo, and other produce in return.

The striped and the checked sort of Silesia linen, which they call bontons, are mostly exported to Italy, on account of their fine quality.

There are linen manufacturers in Silesia who now export linen to Cadiz, and even to Vera Cruz, on their own account; but the greatest part is still exported from Hamburg, as the merchants of that place, who are in the linen line, go regularly twice a year to Silesia to make purchases, where also they have agents. That country is frequented by many other foreign merchants, as the Dutch and Italians; and even the English, who buy generally lawns, dowlas, checked and book linen. The Italians commonly buy the striped sort, or bontons, the stripes of which are interwoven with red Turkish yarn, and are used for curtains, bed-ticks, and many other sorts of furniture.

* See the article Stettin.

The yarn of which the Silesia linen is made is spun by means of the spindle, which makes it almost look like cotton; and such kind of linen requires less time to bleach than any other.

The Silesia linen of different manufactures is all of the same quality, and there is no other distinction in it than in its width, and in the length of the pieces. In the year 1740, when Silesia was subdued by the Prussian arms, the exportation of linen amounted only to 3 millions of rix dollars, and at present it may be estimated at from 16 to 20 millions. There were, in the years 1792 and 1793, in the Prussian part of Silesia, 24,761 looms, which employed 38,451 workmen, and manufactured for 8,722,861 rix dollars worth of linen, and exported from 1792 till 1793 for 6,190,554 rix dollars to foreign countries; for the years 1791 and 1792, the whole production of Silesia linen amounted to only 7,373,000 rix dollars; and

The exportation of raw linen	}	363,229 rix dollars.
amounted to		
Bleached ditto		4,268,774
Ticken, damask, &c.		68,952
Handkerchiefs		46,973
Yarn, raw		8,780
Ditto bleached		73,206
Thread		23,646
Total		4,853,560

To the value of the above exportation, made in 1791 and 1792, is still to be added that of the following sorts: Creas, platilles, bretagnes, lawn, and the fine checked linen.

The Silesia linen trade is the most important in the German empire; the chief places for their manufacture are the cities of Hirschburg, Landshut, Schmiedeburg, Greifenburg, Friedland, Waldenburg, and Schweidnitz.

Hirschburg is the first and the most important trading city of Silesia, situate between the mountains of that country, and is the seat of the lawn manufactories in particular. Although the manufactures of other kind of linen are but trifling, yet, in the exportation and manufacturing of lawns, that city exceeds all the others in Silesia; and, so early as 1786, the exports amounted to 1,518,178 rix dollars.

The raw long lawns, or what are called double Silesias, are frequently sent to Harlem, in order to be bleached for the

English market. The patterns of the coloured lawns are very different; sometimes they are mixed with red, sometimes with blue, and sometimes with green flowers. This coloured sort of lawn is $1\frac{1}{2}$ Breslaw ell-wide, and from 52 to 54 ells long, the same as the white and the raw sorts.

Besides these different sorts of lawns, there is still another sort of them manufactured in Silesia, and chiefly in Hirschburg, called, by the Italians, *Tela batista a bastoni*, for which market they are chiefly designed; they are tied up in pieces of a round form: this sort is of the same width with the rest, and, when first made, of an equal length, but the pieces are afterwards cut into four equal parts, containing from $13\frac{1}{4}$ to $15\frac{1}{2}$ ells.

Other lawns, called cobweb lawns, likewise manufactured in that city, are of the same width and length as the former. All these different sorts of lawns are exported to England, France, Spain, Italy, and America.

Landshut is, next to Hirschburg, the most important place in the linen trade, and, in the year 1785, its exportation amounted to 1,342,569 rix dollars. Schmiedeburg, in 1782, manufactured for sale to the amount of 403,706 rix dollars; and, in 1796, 661,341. Waldenburg sent, in the year 1790, by the way of Hamburg, for different foreign markets, to the amount of 899,598 rix dollars.

The annual exportation of linen from Greifenburg, amounted to upwards of 196,000 rix dollars, in which are some ticken and damask, and many checked and striped sorts of linen.

The linen sent from the town of Friedland amounted, in the year 1781, to 78,628 rix dollars, and, in 1783, to 20,061 rix dollars; so that this town is on the decline.

The linen from Schweidnitz amounted, in the year 1784, to 109,425 rix dollars. The manufacture of flowered damask and ticken has been brought to the greatest perfection, in Silesia and in Lausitz; it is manufactured in three different modes, plain, marbled, and white flowered. This sort of linen consists in table-cloths, napkins, and towels. It is likewise manufactured at Zittaw, in whole pieces of twelve napkins, and that which is made for towels, contains twenty ells each piece. It is chiefly exported by the way of Trieste to Italy.

The linen manufacture in Lausitz has been exported chiefly of late to Cadiz, from which place it is again sent to the South American colonies, and bartered for the produce of those countries. In the year 1795, the war with England put a stop to that trade, as well as to many manufactures; the merchants and manufacturers therefore endeavoured to find out a new

channel, or a new market in some other country, in order to keep up this branch of business, which had hitherto only been carried on by the way of Spain, to the great advantage of the merchants of Lausitz. The United States of North America being the best adapted for that purpose, on account of their neutrality, and the contiguity to the Spanish possessions in America and the West Indies, they appointed agents in different places of the United States to barter the German manufactured goods for produce of those countries, which best suited the German market in return. However, the great convulsion which occurred in Hamburg in the years 1799 and 1800 occasioned them to drop the idea of continuing such hazardous speculations on their own account. But the treaty of Amiens revived this branch of the linen trade which had been so suddenly interrupted, and the commerce with Cadiz and other Spanish ports was renewed; the exportation to those places became more considerable, as the remittances from Peru and Mexico arrived in Spain; by these means the public paper of Spain received an additional value, in short, the linen business again went on as it had done before the year 1795; but the breaking out of the war between England and France, in 1803, has once more put a stop to this trade. The exportation of this linen, usually made in the spring, from Hamburg and Altona is stopped, and now an opening is made for the Irish merchants and manufacturers to introduce theirs.

CHAPTER II.

Of Memel ; its Trade and Navigation in general. Tables of Imports and Exports, specifying the Articles, from 1797 to 1805; with Calculations of the Cost of the latter free on board, at certain Prices and Rates of Exchange.

MEMEL derives its commerce from the river of that name, or frequently called the Njemen, which takes its rise in a forest between Nieswiz and Minsk in Lithuania; part of its course forms the present boundary betwixt Russia and Prussia, it falls into the Courish haff after dividing itself in two arms, sixty miles south of Memel.

The Memel in its course receives, at Kauen, the Wilna, which takes its rise not far from where the Beresinski canal is forming to join the Düna and the Dnieper; but the river falling into the Memel, and of most consequence to it, is the Szczara, running by Slonin, from its uniting the Baltic and the Black seas, through the canal of Oginsky, the principal communication; as this lies within that part of the division of Poland, which Russia has acquired, it is more particularly described under the head of the canals of that country.

Memel has been mostly remarkable for its considerable trade in timber, which was not of any importance till 1764, since when it has rapidly increased, partly from the convenience of the port, and partly from the greater supplies at a more reasonable rate, and better squared than from other ports; such has been the demand, and such the quantities shipped, that it is not unlikely, in a short time, that its resources will be exhausted; it has its supplies at present from the forests of the Prince Radzivill, whose father would not suffer the forests to be cut in his time, by which event, fortunate for the son, who now feels the benefit, timber has, even in the forests, risen to double its price within the last twelve years. There are trifling supplies from other quarters, at a distance of 800 to 1000 miles

from Memel, which is floated down in rafts safely as far as Russ, near the mouth of the river Memel, from whence it is brought down the haff to Memel, in floats of 12 to 1500 pieces each, but, towards autumn, in heavy gales of wind, it is frequently broken adrift. When the supplies for this trade from Russia fail, no doubt the King of Prussia will allow his forests to be cut, not only to preserve the trade of Memel, but, perhaps, to experience a proportionately higher price than what has been paid.

Square timber is distinguished by three sorts, the best, middling, and brack. There are no proper brackers, the assorting being chiefly regulated by the demand from abroad: the round wood is cut into deals, and what is not fit for that use is made into lath-wood.

There are twenty-four saw-mills worked by the wind, which, on an average produce annually about 400,000 running deals, or 7,000 pieces, two-thirds of which are of three-inch, and one-third of two inches and a half in thickness; a few one inch and a half, and two-inch deals are cut for exportation, mostly to France.

There are from seventeen to twenty timber ponds at this place; a pond is, a certain compass of the river fenced round, to keep the timber from floating away.

The timber is chiefly in request for the British market. Upon an average 700 sail of ships are loaded with timber from this port; the value may be reckoned in this one article, at 350,000*l.* sterling per annum.

As the canal of Oginsky underwent complete repairs, which were finished in 1803, it will give Memel the advantage of considerably extending her trade, not only for masts from Volhinia, oak wood and timber in general, but likewise for hemp, flax, and other articles, and a considerable trade to and from the Black sea.

The estimated quantity of produce brought down to Memel, is,

Square timber; on an average,	5 to 6000 shock	} (of 60 pieces) annually.
Round ditto	12 to 1500 ditto	
Oak staves	10 to 15000 ditto	
Fir ditto	4 to 6000 ditto	
Flax	12 to 15000 stone	
Linseed	2 to 2500 lasts	
Hemp	4 to 60000 stone	
Tallow	5 to 10000 ditto	
Grain, according to the demand of the year		

besides many articles of trifling importance, as will be better seen by the export list.

They have a bracker here, who is appointed by the magistrates, under particular rules and regulations, for certain goods only, whose decision is definitive in all cases of dispute about the quality.

The hemp is assorted into three different sorts, called rein, chücken, and pass; the two latter sorts are chiefly exported, the rope makers generally work up about 15 to 20,000 stone of the best.

The flax is generally brought to town in winter, and made into three sorts, rakitzer, four-brand, and three-brand; all which is chiefly exported to Portugal, being best adapted for that market.

The greatest part of the linseed exported for sowing is produced in Lithuania and Szamaiten, and exported to Holland, Bremen, Lubec, and Stettin. From the latter place it is sent to Silesia and Bohemia; the sowing seed is bracked by a person properly appointed for that purpose, and each barrel is marked M. At Liebau, the exportation of linseed is considerable in barrels, which are marked L B, in contra distinction to Memel. The French, who did not know the meaning of these letters, took the L B for *le bon*, and the M* for *mauvais*. This blunder caused the loss of the trade of Memel to France. The crushing linseed from this place is much esteemed in England, from its great produce of oil.

The importation into Memel is but trifling; Königsburg has the great advantage over this place in that respect, being a market where they can always sell their produce, or barter against imports. Memel might have this trade if there was a safe navigation from Russ, or the mouth of the Memel: when this place was in the hands of Russia, it was in contemplation to make a canal which could easily have been effected, from the natural facility of a rivulet which runs part of the way; but policy keeps back the execution.

Goods may be forwarded into the country from Memel on paying the duties, according to the book of rates, and likewise the frontier duty, when passing the Prussian boundaries. They have here a pretty brisk transit trade to Russia.

The whole export trade of Memel was, in 1802, estimated at twelve millions of guilders, or about 600,000 $\frac{1}{2}$ sterling; a greater sum than this port ever exported before.

* Memel seed.

Memel is situated upon the Courish haff, about two miles from where it discharges itself into the Baltic sea. Through the city runs a small river, called the *Dange*, which admits vessels of nine feet water, even a mile above the town, and gives the greatest convenience for loading grain, linseed, and other articles, directly from the warehouses, and without the expense or risk of lighterage. Here, like all the ports on the south shore of the Baltic, there is a sand bank at the entrance; but with this superior advantage over the others, that it has generally from thirteen to eighteen feet water. If the ice breaks up, in spring, with a westerly wind, or from N. N. W. the bar remains as before; but if the wind should, at that time, be south east, then the ice is driven against the sand hills, by which the depth on the bar is changed, leaving a small draft of water, so little that, one year, it was only seven feet. Ships of a larger draft of water than can get over the bar, must load in the roads; the anchorage is but middling, and very dangerous with north, and north-west winds for the ships being driven ashore; and, when from the eastward, of the rafts being driven from thence to sea.

The port-charges are very moderate, consisting chiefly of pilotage and ballast charges. There are some regulations at this port, for masters of ships, with which they should be acquainted. The duties are the same as at the other six ports in east and west Prussia. They had twenty-five vessels belonging to this port, in 1804. Memel pays the same duties as other ports.

The navigation generally closes about the middle or latter end of December, (when the frost sets in), and opens about the latter end of March.

Exchange and Purchases.

They have an exchange here, but are nevertheless obliged to send all their bills to Konigsburg to be negotiated; on which place, for their payments, they generally give assignments at three days sight. What few payments are made at Memel to the Polish Jews and others, are chiefly in Dutch ducats.

It must be here observed, that for all timber shipped they have a fixed rate of exchange of eighteen guilders per pound sterling. It is only for this article, the merchants have settled it so amongst themselves, to prevent all disputes with masters of vessels, who are frequently empowered to purchase their cargoes on their arrival.

For all other articles they draw in the same manner, and exchange as at Konigsburg, to which we refer the reader.

MONEY.

Their accounts are kept in guilders and grosh; thirty grosh making one guilder. Their currency here is the Prussian dollar, guilder, and other money. Their imports are paid in guilders, and greater part of their exports in the manner described.

WEIGHTS.

1 shippound has 3 centner; 1 centner $3\frac{1}{3}$ stones; 1 stone 33 pounds.

100 pounds, Prussian weight, will be 105 pounds British.

MEASURE.

Corn is the last of $56\frac{1}{2}$ scheffel, and will produce $10\frac{1}{2}$ to $10\frac{3}{4}$ quarters, Winchester measure.

Timber, masts, and yards, are sold by the British running foot.

Linen cloth is measured by the Berlin ell, of which $137\frac{1}{5}$ make 100 yards English.

Flax and hemp are sold by the stone of 33lb.; linseed by the barrel of $2\frac{1}{4}$ scheffels; salt by the last of 6000lb.

Denomination of Goods.		1797	1799	1801	1803	1804
Almonds	centner	21		7	12	14
Apples	barrels		171		23	34
Anchovies	small do.				1	41
Aniseed	lb.					
Apothecary drugs	rix-doll.				167	253
Beer, English	quart	26176	152	1770	645	891
Brandy, French	hhd.	153	11	32	96	107
Coffee	lb.	27424	15230	47836	54957	60590
Cinnamon, &c.		68		103	52	148
Cicory						19726
Confectionary &c.	rix-doll.	200		17		258
Chimney pots & bricks	pieces	291500	100800	113000	143000	460709
Chalk, &c.	lasts	235	523	1337	150	244
Cheese, Eng. & Dutch	stones	55	1300	353	1155	7185
Coaches, English	pieces	13	3210		9170	12100
Coals	large barrels	416	944	1567	1474	501
Figs	centner	15			2350	80
Hemp flax, and hemp tow	stone	3992	1500			2197
Fruit, dried and fresh	barrels	345		188		159
Ginger, &c.	centner	12		5	1405	537
Glass-ware, Bohem. & Eng. rals.		457	7112	114	302	913
Inland		607	10	2555	151	
Grindstones	chaldrons	84	54	48	67	97
Herrings, Dutch	barrels	8	39555		33	40
Swedish		5563		5760	2071	1038
Hops	stone	205	154	58	110	67
Indigo, fine & coarse	lbs.	458	154	671	2156	1359
Iron and steel, Swedish	centner	3734	1110	43050	1850	1531
pots inland		40	7	107	214	490
Iron goods, &c.	rix-doll.	2889	7112	4782	3358	6769
Yuffs, Russian	pieces	5090				
lead & white, Eng.	centner	238	26	87	29	77
Lemons, oranges, &c.	pieces	58430	50400	9200	68990	15180
Leather, Eng. soal	stone	43	64	96	34	
Merchandise	rix-doll.	5914	5520	44340	516	291
Nutmegs	centner	32	46	4	29	17
Nuremburg goods	rix-doll.	1108	1850	990	1908	2181
Oil, salad & Provence	centner	17		270	53	324
Paper, Dutch	reams	49	26	81	34	134
Pitch	barrels	200	86	159		
Pearl barley & rice	centner	57	8	68	2105	
Plums	stones	53	20	43	675	364
Raisins and currants	centner	12	114	113	1158	950
Salt	lasts	220	986	200	1151	1743
Syrup		279	25	543	1098	746
Spices	centner	17	722	30	5657	730
Sugar, raw		318	227	342	502	626
candied		15	12	10		26
Table, pen, & pocket knv.	rix d.	3113		3643		
Tea	lbs.	332	801	807	237	1337
Tar, Swedish	barrels	2000	150	1971	703	1080
Tobacco, smoaking & snuff	lbs.	990	727	832	1251	465
Train-oil	barrels	36	14		37	12
Tin, English	centner	8	11			108
Vinegar & cyder	cymer	126	55	11	11	42
Wine, French	hhd.	489	67	90	67	191
Rhenish	cymer	4	60	75		30
sweet Spanish		44	6	5	3	5
Portuguese		21			74	15
Wheat flour, English	scheffel	32	28	7	16	
Woolen goods	rix-doll.		1395		420	

EXPORTS FROM MEMEL.

Denomination of Goods.		1797	1799	1801	1803	1804
Ashes, weed	rdlr.		18			28
hard blue	stone		385	288	45	
Bristles		133		303	156	204
Butter		46	17	33	6	
Brandy, inland	ohm.	200	685	1282	29	60
foreign	hhd.		8		1	90
Bed feathers	stone			37	68	119
Flax		114257	804	30552	159046	158095
Grain, as wheat	lafts	512	544	1262	750	2544
rye		3032	2864	1930	3361	2072
barley		220	24	1454	521	1149
oats		70	50	883	678	1269
pease		20	15	34	65	48
Hemp		6490	55	4168	11250	41557
Linseed, sowing	barrels	14074		4942	7378	3388
crushing	lafts	1677	1237	690	1863	2269
Salt meat	barrels		195	6		11
Skins, ox skins	decker	119	2551	1644	180	180
calf		1824	6395	3198	8782	9834
buck		280	70	121	1220	539
goat		300	1000	121	1200	559
horse			346		55	18
sheep		1860	1	3198		392
Tree nails	shock.	60	220	350	423	342
Tallow	stone	4921	1239	789		
candles			2		42	
Tow	lafts	487	3	268	285	135
Wood, as balks, fir	rdlr.	334905	157886	98700	993418	170968
mafts		14	1303	44	1863	90
spears		81	1136	59	1916	998
bowsprits		9	245	11	565	224
boat mafts		79	130	5274	103	289
deals, fir, 3 to 2½	shock		364		1267	1638
2 to 1½			475		603	758
1 to 2		528	96	292		
3 to 4		251		1228		
lathwood	bundles	677	927	1015	2101	1971
fir staves	shock		525	424	887	322
pipe do.		489	1625	1063	2163	1781
hhd do.		489		12	77	46
barrel		212	279	260	422	212
ash slips		21	22	192	20	49
oak deals	rdlr.				421	103
clapboard of 3 feet		90	56	74	60	144
4 do.		21				
yards		10	6	5	6	33
hand spikes			2	2	60	7
Wax	stone	34	50	84	42	41
Yard	shock		200	51	20	25

CHAPTER III.

Of Königsburg. Its Trade and Navigation in general. Of the Imports and Exports for 1804. Its Exports to France, Spain, and Portugal from 1795 to 1805. Its Trade to Russia and the Black Sea. Of Braunsburg and its Trade.

KÖNIGSBURG was one of the principal cities of the Hanseatic league. Before the conquest of Russia extended so far west, it had a considerable share of trade, but the division of Poland diminished it very considerably. In this city, on the 28th of January, 1701, it was that the elector, Frederick III. of Brandenburg, had himself crowned King of Prussia.

This city is situated upon the Pregel, a little above its falling into the Frische haff. The river takes its rise on the borders of Poland; but is of little service to the interior trade of Königsburg, otherwise than facilitating the grand communication by means of the river Memel, which we have already fully described under the city of that name: and why that city does not enjoy the trade of Königsburg has been partly related, namely, on account of the dangerous navigation from the mouth of the river to Memel along the Courish haff.

Königsburg derives all the advantages of the river Memel by the canal from the left arm of that river, before it falls into the haff, being joined to the Pregel, called Frederick's Graben. This canal first begins from the Memel, by what is called the Gilge Canal, which proceeds to Lapiau, from thence it is continued on to Tapiau, where it falls into the Pregel. This canal was effected the easier by means of two rivulets, which took opposite directions in the direct course of the canal, by which Königsburg has a safe and complete interior navigation,

even to the Black sea, through the Oginsky canal; and no sooner had Count Oginsky finished it than he had a vessel loaded at Cherson; and unloaded at Konigsburg. At Slonin, so far in the interior, they now build vessels, of a particular description, which go through the Oginsky canal, and down the Dnieper to the Black sea, where they are sold.

It is now that vessels of from 50 to 60 lasts use this navigation, making two voyages in the year to the interior, first coming down in the end of May, and taking articles of importation back into the interior, from whence they return again, generally in August or September, with produce, and repeat the same business in the imports; so that Konigsburg monopolizes as it were, from the merchants of Memel, the use of the river of that name, by their capital and the convenience of this canal.

The quantity of produce brought down from Poland annually is generally estimated at

- 5 to 10,000 lasts of rye
- 3 to 4,000 ditto of linseed
- About 2,000 ditto of hemp
- 3 to 400 ditto of flax
- 2 to 4,000 shippound of ashes
- 1 to 2,000 stones of wax
- 8 to 10,000 ditto of bristles
- 6 to 12,000 ditto of tallow.
- 10 to 12,000 balks of timber.

By the general list of exports it will be observed, that all these articles are not exported; some are retained, such as hemp, flax, ashes, and timber, for home consumption and use, particularly the former, which is sent to Elbing, Dantzie, Stettin, and other Prussian ports; the remainder to Holland principally.

They have a regulated brack here for rein and cut hemp, all kinds of flax, ashes, sowing linseed, and bristles.

HEMP is divided into the following sorts:

Rein, or clean, the first sort, which is the best hemp, and which the Dutch chiefly took formerly for their whale lines; cut, Russ chucken, Lithuania chucken, pass and tow.

FLAX.

Rakitzer, crown and brack; Drujanja, crown and brack; Olschaner, crown and brack; Oberlands and Podolia, crown and brack. The above are sold by the stone.

LINSEED.

The best sowing is packed in barrels, whereof 24 contain $56\frac{1}{2}$ scheffels; the crushing is sold by the barrel in bulk.

ASHES.

Crown pot, and N. B. pot; crown pearl; hard crown pearl; N. B. pearl; brack pearl, and blue. This article is sold by the shippound, $6\frac{1}{2}$ of which will be an English ton.

YARN.

From Ermland, 6 to 20lb. per bundle, of the first quality; Lithuania, from 18 to 30lb. the bundle; and from 22 to 40lb. the bundle. The quality varies according to its weight.

The grain which is shipped from hence is chiefly the produce of Prussia, and that part of Poland now subject to it, coming principally from the south-east of Prussia. The quality of the wheat is not esteemed, in the English market, equal to that from Dantzic. It is chiefly held under different denominations; viz.

WHEAT.

High mixed, which is the first quality.
Mixed, the next.
Red, the inferior sorts.

RYE.

Polish, the best.
Dried, middle.
Prussian, inferior.

BARLEY.

Double, the best.
Common, ordinary.

PEAS.

White, the first quality.
Grey, mixed and inferior.

OATS.

Some variation in quality, and the price regulated accordingly.

These articles are sold by the last, of $56\frac{1}{2}$ scheffel, which will produce 84 to 86 bushels, Winchester measure.

There are excellent, spacious, and commodious granaries here, as well as warehouses, for the general purposes of commerce, which denote the former importance of the place. Fir timber is but little exported, being of a smaller size and chiefly cut up into different forms, and exported to the Dutch. There are seven or eight large wind-saw-mills, which do this business.

Oak timber is not brought down here in sufficient quantities for exportation: besides, their own wants and consumption for their ship building here every year, they have sometimes their oak knees from Dantzic. Two or three very large ships have been built here, and sold to the Danish East India Company.

There were, in 1804, about from seventy to eighty ships belonging to this port; their general burthen was from 150 to 300 tons each; some few larger.

The port of Königsburg is properly Pillau, which lays across the Frische haff, and is about thirty miles distant by water, and by land about thirty-five, just upon the Baltic. The harbour of Pillau is very commodious and safe; the entrance to it from the sea has a bar, on which the water varies at different times in depth, from eleven to fourteen, sometimes fifteen feet, but subject to great changes. The channel for sailing into the harbour is distinctly pointed out by two conspicuous beacons, and there are always pilots at sea to take charge of approaching ships. The road is open and unsheltered for ships drawing more water than can get over the bar.

The navigation betwixt Königsburg and Pillau is obstructed by two shallow places, or bars on which the depth of the water alters from six to nine feet, according to the weather; so that vessels of a particular construction can take in all their cargo at the warehouses in the town; for those which cannot, and must load at Pillau, or in the roads, they have good lighters, many of which are from 60 to 100 tons each. Elbing, Braunsburg, and Königsburg, are all subject to the same navigation and risk that we have here described, not that it is great, though worth the notice of the merchant and underwriter.

The duties exacted at Königsburg are the same as at other Prussian ports.

The navigation of the river generally opens in March, when, or in April, ships may begin to load; the port generally closes in December, but in 1804, in the end of October or beginning of November it was fast, but it opened again so that ships got away. A ship or two generally winter here, for the purpose of

taking the Ermland yarn early to Hull, for the manufacturers at Manchester.

Amongst the number of shipping arriving and sailing from this port, the following years, were

BRITISH SHIPS CLEARED,

In 1796	104 ships.	In 1801	52 ships.
1797	66 ditto	1802	92 ditto
1798	98 ditto	1803	76 ditto
1799	74 ditto	1804	95 ditto till the
1800	73 ditto		18th of October.

In 1768, no less than 763 vessels of all nations arrived at Konigsburg; the list of general exports for some time past will better explain the state of the whole trade of Konigsburg, and the proportion which Great Britain has had; a table will be found shewing the proportion to France and other nations; and likewise a particular table of exports and imports for 1804; the latter will better explain from its state, what share Great Britain enjoys.

Exchange, Money, &c.

Accounts are there kept in guilders and grosh; thirty of the latter make one of the former.

The medium exchange on London is $18\frac{1}{2}$ Prussian guilders to the pound sterling, at three months date; it fluctuates from 18 to 19 guilders in time of peace, but in extraordinary times, such as the present, it has been known to vary from 16 to 21 guilders per pound sterling.

On Amsterdam, the exchange fluctuates from 300 to 310 grosh Prussian per pound, Flemish current: 30 Prussian grosh make a Prussian guilder; and a pound Flemish current, is 6 guilders Holland current.

On Hamburg, the exchange is in general from 130 to 136 grosh per rix dollar, Hamburg banco, at from 3 to 6 weeks date, greater variations happen seldom.

In peaceable times, the English merchants who commissioned goods from this country, used to lodge a credit in Amsterdam; but at present they generally appoint their credits in London.

The business which is here done in the exchange way, is very great; being the mart for the eastern part of Europe and throughout Poland, even down to the Black sea, and the centre point betwixt Russia, Hamburg, and Amsterdam; from

which last place, and Berlin, they receive great quantities of gold and specie to purchase bills. This must be of some extent, when we find no less than nearly half a million sterling in specie some years imported this way through Polangen to Russia.

The bank at Berlin has a comptoir here for purchasing bills, and transacting other business, as already described.

WEIGHTS.

100 pounds Prussian, are equal to 105 pounds English.

1 stone Prussian is 33 lbs.

10 stone is 1 ship-pound, or 330 lbs.

1 centner is 110 Prussian pounds.

60 ship-pounds are reckoned a last.

66½ stone are equal to an English ton, in what they reckon the measure of their ships.

Lead and tin imported from England are sold by the centner.

Pepper and some other spices, and valuable articles, are sold by the small stone of 20 lbs. Prussian.

*List of Goods exported from Konigsburg to the following Places
in the Year 1804.*

Denomination of Goods.	To England.	To Holland.	To Spain & France.	To Denmark and Norway.	To Sweden.	To Lubec, and Bremen and Hamburg.	To Pomerania and Embden.	To Dantzic and Elbing.	Total.
Aches, pot & pearl	89	1286	466	266		11	1221	13	3354
weed		118					4	62	185
Bristles	3550	2506	59			576	388	196	7275
Corn, wheat	2295	345	716	220	173	162	60		3971
rye		1239	29	2168	1521	61	561	103	5682
barley	117		5	325	303				751
oats	315		18	50	6		5	32	426
pease	414		22	142	422	631	129	34	1227
Flax	484	5	10	231	84	14	10	33	2795
Hemp	112	442		19	80	3	1685	451	874
feed		57		3				1	62
Leather								30	30
Linfeed, fowing		44	963	225	504	150	44	98	2028
crushing	1958	2852	26	76	4		84		5001
Oil, hempseed				119	52		3	225	354
Tow	156	3		35	8		239	198	642
Tallow							135	2447	2582
Wax	260					39	97	56	452
Wood, fir balls	7717	307	518				307		8349
planks	212	7	56	81		1	137		492
Yarn linen	23331					12	7	243	23593

List of Goods imported at Königsburg in 1804.

SHIPS ARRIVED, 942.

Alum	lb.	46476	Leather, English	lb.	21169
Almonds		91701	Oil, sweet	pipes	89
Brandy French and rum	hhd.	689	train	bbl.	749
Cardamum	lb.	334	Oysters	pieces	500
Cinnamon		5557	Pepper	lb.	149358
Coffee		844693	Rice		196284
Copperas		119517	Saffron		118
Currants		31924	Salt	lasts	3158
Fruit, lemons & oranges	pieces	325749	Steel	lb.	81400
prunes	lb.	111794	Sugar		1352137
raisins		164016	Tar, Swedish	lasts	289
Fish, dried, Dutch	bbl.	334	Tea	lbs.	7023
No. and Danish		12226	Tobacco in leaf		633837
Ginger	lbs.	11996	Tin		72344
Indigo		38334	Vinegar	hhds.	218
Iron in bars	sh. lb.	15264	Wire, iron	lbs.	97410
Lead in pigs	lb.	264638	brass		7361
white		58016	Wood, Brazil		335467
shot		134467			

Exported from Königsburg to France, Spain, and Portugal.

	1795	1796	1797	1798*	1799*	1800*	1801	1802	1803	1804
Wheat lasts	30	231	620	1092	1096	609	882	981	383	
Rye		42	145	541	203		85	331	90	
Barley			1082	133	151		623	65		
Oats					60					
Hemp		827		48			752	298		
Flax			72		10	97				
Tow		32					110	10		
Tallow stone	1093									
Pot ashes sh. lb.			720				277	1696	613	
Bristles stone					140					
Wax								97		
Planks shoc.			8			5		1		
Balks pcs.								2310		

See a separate table for the Exports of this Year.

Marked thus, * denotes that exports to Portugal were in those years only.

BRAUNSBURG,

An ancient town, and the principal one of Ermland ; about midway on the road betwixt Königsburg and Elbing, and not far from the haff, with which it has a communication by a rivulet, which is navigable for small craft up to the town.

The produce exported from hence is principally yarn, grain, and Oberland flax ; the yarn bears the name of Ermland yarn, and is chiefly exported to Hull for the Manchester manufacturers ; its quality is much esteemed, being next to that of Hamburg and Bremen.

Towards the approach of winter, the people in the country begin to spin this yarn, and during the whole of that period they bring it to market from the small towns and villages, when it is bought, by the merchants who deal in that article, chiefly at Braunsburg, and some few at Elbing.

The flax employed in making the Ermland yarn is principally grown in Old Prussia ; when there is a great crop of flax, it is calculated that 30000* pieces more of yarn are produced than in ordinary years.

From each stone of flax weighing 33 lb. they reckon 40 pieces of yarn to be spun on the average. In the year 1804, the quantity of Ermland yarn exported was, from

Braunsburg	85943 shock.
Elbing	15075
Königsburg	22635
	123653

of which 112145 shock were shipped to Hull, the remainder to Stockton, Kirkaldy, London, and Dundee ; the estimated value of the whole at a medium exchange is about 127917*l.* sterling, in the first cost.

The yarn exported from Königsburg is generally in bundles of from 20 to 30 lb. and sometimes as far as 40lb. each bundle containing 30 pieces ; this heavy yarn is chiefly drawn from Lithuania. We shall give further particulars of the yarn trade, under the head Elbing.

* A piece is reckoned according to a certain measure.

CHAPTER IV.

*Of Elbing, its Trade and Navigation in general. Its Granaries,
 &c. &c. &c.*

THE town of Elbing, derives its name from the river Elbing, which takes its rise from the lake Drawser, about five miles beyond the town, through which it flows, and was, till the year 1600, in the Hanseatic League, and reckoned one of the seven great towns of Prussia. In respect to trade, even in the earlier ages, Elbing was not quite unknown. In the year 1577, an English society established itself here, which continued till about the year 1660; but, owing partly to political, and partly to other unfavourable circumstances, it was then dissolved, and the trade was no longer carried on by a company, but by individuals residing, some in Elbing, others in Königsburg and Dantzic.

The trade of Elbing has increased most since it was taken possession of by the King of Prussia, in the year 1772. The warehouse-island is surrounded by the river Elbing, and a moat. In that island are erected all the warehouses, and the king's new packing yard, in which are housed all goods that arrive by sea from Pillau, which are kept there, paying a certain rate of rent till they are disposed of. A Bank Comptoir was established here in the year 1775, being a branch from the principal bank in Berlin. It advances a certain part, on pledges of grain, ashes, linens, flax, and other goods, and insures them against the danger of fire; which insurance the proprietors have to pay. Of fabrics there are here two for weed-ashes, two for starch; a considerable soap manufactory; a tobacco

manufactory, and a sugar-house. It is only since the year 1794, they began to build ships here. The quantity of shipping was, at the end of 1803, about 3,555 lasts belonging to this port.

Lighters have been decreasing for some years. In the year 1793, there were fifty-one coasters, and twenty-five lighters; but, at present, the in-tonnage is only about eighteen hundred corn lasts. By means of these lighters, the ships that lay in Pillau receive their cargoes. The largest of the coasters are generally from about forty-five to seventy lasts. Vessels from Holland and East Friesland of fifty and sixty lasts, and small Danish vessels of twenty-five and forty lasts, come up straight to the warehouses, where they take in, though not the whole, the greatest part of their cargoes; Pillau is the port of Elbing, from which it is distant about fifty miles. The description of it will be seen in treating of Konigsburg.

The duties paid here are according to the tariff for the other ports; but on payment of the excise duties, $\frac{1}{4}$ of the value must be in Friedrich d'Ors, if the sum amounts to ten rix dollars: the Friedrich is only reckoned at five rix dollars, when paid for duties; but it currently circulates at five rix dollars 18 groshen. To the amount of the excise duty is to be added another duty, which is called the Additional Duty.

The navigation generally ceases in the middle of November; sometimes sooner, sometimes later, and commences again in the middle of April, or thereabouts.

The trade with fir barks, and fir planks (deals), pipe and hogshead staves, is small in comparison with that of Dantzic, though at present it is not insignificant. At the beginning of the year 1803, a saw-mill was erected here for cutting deals. Oberland flax of the best quality is shipped from hence, and derives its name from that part of the country called Oberland, where it is grown.

The Ermland yarn, which is exported to England, is spun in the bishoprick of Ermland. The country people, and the spinners in the small towns, bring this yarn, in small quantities, to those trading in this article, who purchase the same, and dispose of it again, partly here, and partly at Braunsburg. The yarn when delivered there, in respect of weight and colour, is mixt; but then it is assorted, weighed, bound, and packed up for exportation.

The warehouse room of Elbing, for grain, can only be estimated at about 30,000 lasts.

The population of Elbing, including the suburbs, is estimated at 19,000 souls, in which the garrison is not included.

By means of the river Weichsel (or Vistula) the productions of the ci-devant Poland, come down. At the Montauer Point, about six German miles from Elbing, the Vistula divides itself into two arms or branches;—one retains its name, and serves to convey the productions of Poland to Dantzic; another arm or branch is called the Nogat, and, by this river, the same productions are received at Elbing, by means of a canal from that river, which has one sluice, and is called the Kraftohe, being in length about a German mile.

The money, weights, and measures, are the same here as at Konigsburg; but here the branch from the bank at Berlin, keeps its accounts in dollars, and gute grosh;—the Excise Office and Custom-house reckon in the same way.

The course of exchange here is regulated by that at Konigsburg. The payment for their bills is made in Prussian currency, in which they pay for corn, ashes, flax, yarn, and the coarse linens.

In most other respects, as well as in point of locality, Elbing resembles Konigsburg, partaking of the general system of its trade, and resembling Dantzic in its produce.

The general accounts of importation and exportation to and from Elbing follow, being from 1797 to the year 1804 inclusive. The exportation to France and Spain, from hence is but of trifling moment.

Elbing has a share of the transit trade to the Austrian and Russian provinces.

CHAPTER V.

Of Dantzic, its Trade and Navigation in general. The interior Trade to Austria and Russia. Wood and Grain staple Articles. Its Granaries and Warehouses described. Fluctuation of Prices. Staves. Oak Plank and Timber Trade. Ship Building. Ships arrived and sailed, from 1752 till 1805.

DANTZIC is one of the oldest cities on the Baltic. In the tenth century it is remarked to have been a village of some note; and Martinere states, in 1185, that it was inclosed within an earthen mound. It certainly became one of the most considerable cities of the Hanseatic League, and once possessed great power, riches, and consequence; which is strongly exemplified by a quarto work,* with engravings of the public buildings, edifices, and various views, published in 1688, by George Reinhold Curicken. Its localities appear to have undergone little change since that period, whatever it may have experienced politically and commercially.

There was formerly a Scotch as well as an English factory here, but, in 1706, they were united. This factory is merely a regulated society. It has a chaplain, whose stipend depends upon the voluntary donations of the few members who compose it, without the British shipping or trade contributing, as in many other places, which leaves the income too small for a British clergyman, even in a foreign country; the chapel and chaplain's house are exempted from taxes, and likewise his family. An extraordinary exception here, is, that an Englishman who is a batchelor, and not a housekeeper, though having a

* In German, very scarce; the author saw one copy in the possession of a gentleman at Dantzic, in the autumn of 1804.

commercial establishment, is still exempted from public taxes, provided he lodges with a burgher.

Danzic is situated about an English mile from the banks of the Vistula, about four English miles from whence it falls into a bay of the Baltic, called after that city, through which a small river runs, called the Mottlau, it is made a good breadth from the Vistula to the city, and of depth sufficient to admit vessels drawing eight or nine feet to the upper part of the town; betwixt the lowest part of which and the river Vistula is a harbour for vessels, and on the banks of which they build very large ships.

The mouth of the Vistula is so choaked up with sand, that even a vessel of a very moderate size cannot sometimes pass over it. This inconvenience has been very well remedied by making a canal, which begins a few hundred yards from the mouth of the Vistula, and which was begun in 1717, and soon executed, across a jut of land, about three-quarters of a mile directly into the bay, the breadth is from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and eighty feet in some places, and the depth of water thirteen to fifteen feet. From the end of this canal, next the sea, there are piers running out about five hundred yards into the bay, from whence ships can enter the canal with almost any wind, and are perfectly secure, as indeed the bay of Dantzie may be reckoned, having excellent anchorage ground, and safe against all storms, those from the north east and east only creating any danger.

At the top of the canal we have just described are flood-gates, or a sluice, to prevent the waters of the Vistula from rushing in, or choaking it with sand. In the month of October, 1804, this sluice was just finished upon a very expensive and workmanlike manner. It will admit vessels through of thirty-six feet beam, and drawing not more than ten to eleven feet water, when they pass into the Vistula, and may proceed up to the mouth of the Mottlau, or to the town, about four English miles, or lay in the Vistula, close to the shore, in a great depth of water. An excellent road is now making from the city along the banks of the Vistula, down to Fahrwasser, within fifty yards of the shipping, when moored.

Since March, 1793, Dantzie has been subject to the crown of Prussia; but the harbour, and what is called the New river (Neufahrwasser) was already in the possession of that king in 1772, and all the tolls which Prussia then imposed were immediately relinquished, on surrendering the city, which preserves its municipal laws and customs, as before; the only

change is in its commercial concerns, which are put on the same footing, generally, as those of Konigsburg and other ports, with the exception of some particularities, as one Prussian port differs from another in this respect. Although, with respect to duties and some other imposts, Dantzic is on equal terms with Konigsburg, the customs on timber are nearly the same as those paid by the merchants of Stettin on that article, from south Prussia. The royal duties are very different on each article.

The transit business is not allowed at Dantzic, on account of its being a staple town. Every foreigner is obliged to buy from a burgher, and likewise to sell to the same.

Every citizen and merchant may carry on what trade he pleases; but no one can trade with a Polander, who has not the liberty of the city, or is a burgher; and, what is extraordinary, neither an Englishman nor a Dutchman are permitted to become such; they are allowed to be commissioners and merchants, but under this condition, to buy from, and to sell to, a burgher only; whereas, on the other hand, a citizen burgher can trade with whom he pleases, without any restraint, and to any quarter of the globe he likes.

As we have here described the port and its customs, we will directly treat of the produce which occasions its commerce and interior communication, and by what means it is brought down to, and carried from Dantzic.

The Vistula, or the Weichsel as it is called, takes its rise in High Silesia, about one hundred miles beyond Cracow, at the foot of the Carpathian mountains, (not far from whence the Oder takes its rise), at that city it begins to be navigable. The first river of any note which falls into the Vistula, is the Dunajetz, which takes its rise in the Carpathian mountains, and which is only navigable for wood-rafts, and from whence is brought oak, plank, staves, and the Bukowina ashes, which are sold in Dantzic under the name of *façon de Hongrie*. There is brought also real Hungarian white ashes, not only by this river, but also others, and by land to Cracow. The next river which falls into the Vistula, is the Zahn, which takes its rise in the Carpathian mountains also, a considerable distance east, from whence the Vistula has its rise; it runs by Jaroslau, where it becomes navigable. This river brings the greatest part of the products from Galicia, which consists of grain, ashes, hempen linen and yarn, timber, planks, and staves. The Zahn falls into the Vistula at Zawichost, in Sandomir.

The next river which falls into the Vistula, is the Wieprz, at Stenzycza, which has its source in Lublin, and is only navigable about ten German miles from its mouth ; by which is conveyed timber, planks, staves, and some small Polish barks with grain.

The most considerable river which falls into the Vistula, is that of the Bug at Zakroczyn. It has its source near Lembourg, and runs through a great and rich district of country, dividing part of Poland, as a boundary betwixt Austria and Russia, and beginning to be navigable at Uscilug in favourable seasons, and when but little water at Dubienka, some distance lower.

This river serves to convey all the products of the Ukraine, and the best part of Lithuania. Formerly the wheat by this river was of an inferior quality to the Sandomir and Cracow wheat ; but, of late, the agriculture is so much improved, that within the last few years the best wheat comes from that quarter, by the Bug.

There is a communication made, by means of a canal, from the Pripecz, which falls into the Dnieper, and the Muckawetz river, which falls into the Bug. By this channel is brought oak plank and staves only, and but very little timber. The principal supply of fir timber, brought to Dantzic, is by the river Narew, which, and its branches, have their rise in old Prussia and Lithuania, and fall into the Vistula, at Zakroczyn, about four German miles below Warsaw. The better sort of barks, timber, and masts, come from this quarter, and the heavier sort of wheat also by the Narew, but it is not so clean as the Sandomir, nor perhaps of so fine a colour.

By the river Bug in general is conveyed the most part of the pot and calcined ashes and tallow from the Ukraine, and that part of Poland in Lithuania. The best sort of rye from the province of Podlachien, that weighs sometimes one hundred and thirty pounds the Dutch sack. The better sort of timber, barks, and masts.

In former times, salt petre came from the Ukraine by the river Bug, but that is now prohibited. By this conveyance was received also, wax, honey, hare skins and leather, but they ceased of late by these channels. During the course of the Vistula, which runs by Bromburg, there is from thence a canal which communicates with the Netze, and that river falls into the Warta, and the Warta into the Oder, at Kustrin ; finally, the Vistula proceeds till it divides ; its right branches

running into the Frische haff, and the other, a little distance from Dantzic, falls into the Baltic.

The Number of Polish Vessels, which came down the Vistula, were in

1765	-	-	-	-	-	1230
1780	-	-	-	-	-	820
1781	-	-	-	-	-	519
1783	-	-	-	-	-	725

Formerly, the numerous products of Poland were all exported by way of the Baltic; but, in consequence of the enormous duties laid on goods in passing through the surrounding dominions of Prussia, the Poles began to look out for more favourable channels and better markets. They soon discovered great advantages in trading to the Black sea, by the way of the Dnieper, the Boug, and the Dniester, which run through a far greater tract than the Njemen and the Weichsel, the only passage for the Polish trade to the Baltic. The Ukraine yields very valuable timber for building, and particularly for masts, salted provisions, hemp, horse hair, sheep wool, coarse linen, raw and manufactured hides, salt petre, tallow, oil of linseed and hempseed, honey, butter, wax, tobacco, malt, spirits, &c. Even the pot ashes, with which Dantzic carried on so extensive a trade, came from the Ukraine. On the other hand, Dantzic supplied Poland with wine, coffee, sugar, spices, drugs, salt, oil, herrings, cloths, silk and woollen articles, iron, lead, &c.

Dantzic formerly received from Holland, coffee, sugar, spices; from Sweden, copper, iron, herrings; from Denmark, a small quantity of tar; from Russia, peltry and yufts; from England, salt, (about eight thousand lasts), beer, arrack, furniture, &c.; from France, wine, coffee, salt, cloths, and silk articles; from Spain, wine, wool, and salt; from Portugal, but a few articles and from Italy, silks, &c.

The return trade, that is, taking imports back to the interior and to the Austrian part of Poland, has not only greatly fallen off, but is much depressed; for instance, for one barrel of Swedish herrings, a duty of four ducats is paid if it comes through Prussia; other goods in proportion. Wine is totally prohibited for trade coming this way, but it is permitted for private consumption, in small quantities, at a very high duty.

The partition of Poland, and the consequent restrictions and regulations by the different powers possessing it, is one cause of products costing considerably higher than before. The Poles used to take foreign produce in return for payment, but they

are now paid in specie, as they must have their articles of necessity, and their few luxuries, from the side of Austria.

The staple articles of trade at Dantzic, in their exports, may be classed under that of two—grain and wood.

We will treat of them separately; and, first, in

GRAIN.

It must be observed that, formerly, *rye* was the principal article of exportation. From hence, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, no less than 96481 lasts of that article alone was exported from this port; the price was then 51 to 56 florins the last, making no allowance for the variation of the times, or depreciation of the money, it is only 4*s.* 5*d.* to 4*s.* 9*d.* per quarter. Rye was, however, the standard measure and value at that time for their commercial concerns. The whole quantity of grain exported at that early period 1618, was 1367784 quarters.

They have four denominations for wheat here, called the best white wheat, high mixed wheat, which are the superior qualities; the middle or mixed sort, the next; and the red, the common: the value of grain they have lately began to estimate by its weight.

Rye, they have some sorts finer than others; but, in general, this article is under frequent restrictions from being exported. Likewise oats, from the great domestic consumption, and for the use of the army. Double and single barley is not so much subject to these restrictions; so that some years considerable quantities are exported.

The time in which the greatest importation of corn from Poland, Galicia, and all these places into Dantzic commences, is at the end of the month of May or in June, and continues till November. This grain is partly imported in vessels, which the Polanders, on their arrival at Dantzic, break up or sell for firewood; but some properly constructed, with long projecting and tapering stems, sharp at the end, of about 40 or 50 lasts burthen, are used in short distances for the conveyance of salt back from the royal magazines to Warsaw, and up the Narew river into East Prussia, but not further.

All kind of grain conveyed to Dantzic, but particularly that from a great distance, is brought down in vessels, or rather floats clumsily put together of different dimensions and descriptions, according to the rivers or places they are first sent from; and what will appear very extraordinary, without any

covering but that of the canopy of heaven. In this state, uncovered, or any ways protected, it is brought from the most remote parts, exposed to all sorts of weather, sometimes six, seven, eight, nine, or even ten weeks on its passage. If the season happens to be wet, the grain is piled in the vessel or float with a ridge to shoot off the wet, which continuing some time, the surface becomes one coat of vegetative matter, like a green grass-plot floating down the current, and which partly prevents the rain penetrating farther than a few inches. The waste and loss, however, must be incredible in wet seasons, and even otherwise, for the feathered tribe as the float proceeds along are their constant customers even into the very city of Dantzic. Strange as this may appear, but which the author has repeatedly been an eye-witness to, these people have never yet been able to be prevailed upon to have tarpaulings, or any covering, which would, in a wet season, doubly repay them for the first cost. Cheap as the linen and tar is in the interior, not even the Polish nobility, or land-owners have yet had the prudence to introduce a proper covering. This branch of trade is chiefly in the hands of the Jews, whose interest, one would suppose, would instruct them better.

When these vessels or floats arrive near Dantzic they are drawn close to the shores of the Vistula, where a green swarth is selected, if the weather is fine and the ground dry, otherwise they borrow sail or linen cloths, on which they land their grain after this tedious voyage. If they have had much wet weather, they then, with wooden scoops, throw it continually over, and work it well, by exposing it to the wind, sun, and air, till they get it into condition, which, in a few fine days is soon the case, when the broker comes to take samples for sale. It is reshipped and brought into the warehouses.

Dantzic, from the earliest period, was the granary of the north, and to judge of its piles of warehousing for that purpose, its trade must have been considerable; indeed, no place can be better accommodated in this respect, nor better regulations to prevent fire, robbery, or any irregularity. A short digression may not be uninteresting, nor unworthy of consideration in other countries.

The principal warehouses here are upon an excellent plan, situated upon an island formed by the River Mottlau, running close by the city on one side, and another branch, by what is called the Forestadt on the other. There are three bridges on each side of the island, at the end of streets over it, from the city to the Forestadt. In the night, all the bridges are drawn

up, excepting the two at the end of the main street, across the centre of the island, communicating betwixt the old city and the Forestadt. On this island are all the principal warehouses for ashes, hemp, linens, and the extensive granaries, containing seventeen streets, besides the large centre one, running the length of the island. To guard these warehouses are from 20 to 30 ferocious dogs of a large size, amongst which are blood-hounds, let loose at eleven o'clock in the night to guard the warehouses, which are nearly equally divided by the main street, which passes over the middle of the island, as before described. To command and to keep the dogs within their districts, as well as the passengers from harm, at the end of each of the streets, leading to the main one, are large high gates run across: no light is allowed, nor any person suffered to live on this island. These dogs prowl about the whole night, and create great terror. It would be impossible to keep property secure amongst the hordes of Poles, Jews, and others, who resort here otherwise, as no exemplary punishment amongst them would have half the effect that the dread of these dogs produce.

In winter-time, when the water is frozen over, to keep the dogs in their proper district, there are three keepers placed at particular avenues, with whips to keep them in their range.

No fire or robbery was ever known; and the expense to each building, with the immense property they contain, is very reasonable. Vessels, either from the interior or other quarters, laying alongside these warehouses are not allowed to have a fire, or light of any kind on board, nor is a sailor or any other person suffered even to smoke. Their regulations partly extend to all shipping lying in the harbour.

To resume the subject on grain; the Pole does not conceive himself paid for buying in the interior, the purchase of vessels, or making floats, and adding the expense of bringing it down, unless he gets 20 ducats per last for his rye, and 35 ducats per last for his wheat, which is equal to 19*s.* per Winchester quarter for the former, and 32*s.* 6*d.* per quarter for the latter. If the prices are less, no great supplies can be expected down from Poland. The quantities of grain sent from thence to Dantzic in any year does not so much depend upon great crops, as the plenty of water in the rivers for easy navigation in summer, and the high prices in Dantzic, as an inducement to bring it down.

It must be observed since the partition of Poland, that the quality of wheat, particularly by the Narew, is much improved.

For other particulars we must refer, whilst speaking on this subject, to those observations made, when we treated of bringing it down from the interior.

It must, however, be particularly remarked, that since Great Britain imported such vast quantities of grain, that Dantzic has participated in the advantages of that trade more than any country whatever. Next comes Mecklenburg. Since 1793, the riches which have been brought into Dantzic, by the exportation of grain and wood to Great Britain, is far beyond any moderate calculation: the quantity of specie abounding in this city, for its trade and size, exceeds any thing of the kind in any other place in Europe, and that chiefly within the short period mentioned. The greatest part of these riches have, no doubt, been occasioned by the great demand and importation of Britain.

We will just give a short sketch of the corn trade at different periods at this city, and the particular state of the exports from hence, after the period the corn bill was brought forward in England, about 1770, since which period, England has been almost constantly importing, when previously British exports in grain amounted to about half a million sterling.

In the year 1618, there was brought down to Dantzic and warehoused

Wheat	15512 lasts.
Rye	96481
Barley	2310
Oats	110
Pease	184

This year was exported in all, lasts 128789 37 scheffels of grain of all descriptions.

The price of rye this year was 51 to 56 florins per last.

Exported from Dantzic in 1649.

Wheat	5951 lasts.
Rye	76899
Barley	16958

99808 lasts.

In 1656, was exported,

Wheat	4564 lasts.
Rye	6046
Buck wheat	751

In 1700, was exported,

Wheat	3200 lasts.
Rye	9642
Barley and malt	1095
Pease	58

The above and other grain in all 15445 lasts.

In 1739, was exported,

Wheat	8576 lasts:
Rye	10239
Barley	285

And in all sorts of grain 19574 lasts.

In the year 1740, in October, the exportation of all grain was prohibited from Dantzic, and not allowed exportation again till February, 1741, in which year was exported 19872 lasts.

In January, 1741, the price of rye was, 265 to 279. Wheat 375 to 470 florins per last.

Before the prohibition took place in 1740, there was exported,

Wheat	15268 lasts.
Rye	23572
Barley	641

In all sorts of grain 39737 lasts.

Remained on hand the 3d of January, 1741, only

Rye	2932 lasts.
Wheat	2272
Barley	164
Oats	446
Pease	105

Which, and other grain in all, 6310 lasts 18 scheffels.

Of the above quantity was already sold to foreigners.

Rye	1351 lasts.
Wheat	223
Oats	80
Pease	20

In all 1674 lasts.

On February 22, 1741, an order was made, that the merchants should always keep a stock in

Rye		1000 lasts.
Wheat		500
Barley		100
Oats		100

In the year 1770, the exportation was prohibited on the 7th October, and an order was made that 6000 lasts of rye, and 3000 lasts of wheat should always be kept in the city. The prohibition was continued till the last day of April 1771, when the price was for

Rye	. . .	300	— florins per last.
Wheat	. . .	380 to 420	
Oats	. . .	150 to 160	
Barley	. . .	240 to 250	

State of the Fluctuations of Prices at Dantzic, supposed to be influenced by those in England, in Florins per Last.

Years.	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.	Pease.
1797	f. 450	230	220	135	300
1800	f. 600	360	—	—	—

In this year, 25th July, was a high impost of about 106 florins per last on exportation; and, in the same month, the prices were up from 860 to 1050 nominally, the 5th September fell down to f. 700 and 500; but the news from England of wet weather raised the prices to 800 f. The 14th October, the prices were from 680 to 900 f. exclusive of the impost; and, on the 31st from 900 to 1100 f. was paid, including the impost.

1801. In the middle of January this year, f. 1230 was paid for the best wheat. On 1st May prices fell from f. 1080 to 940. 1st Nov. were from 650 to 900f. 25th December, the impost was taken off, and the old duties were continued.

1802. In May and August the prices were at f. 600. per last for wheat.

1803. 1st July, from 600 to 700 f. 1st May, from 480 to 620 f. 1st August, from 500 to 620 f. 1st November, from 500 to 650 f. per last for wheat.

1804. 1st January, from 520 to 630 f. 1st May, when supplies came down, from 480 to 600 f. 3d August, f. 430 to

550. 10th ditto, f. 600 to 610. 21st ditto, f. 600 to 650. 1st September, f. 850 to 900; and the highest price paid was f. 905. 6th Oct. f. 830 to 890 per last.

In the winter of 1804, as high as f. 1200. In the spring of 1805 it fell again to f. 1000; and in April to f. 950 to 800.

The duties in Prussia, even for grain, are continually varying in a temporary manner: for instance, if there is any extraordinary demand for grain, restrictions or new duties for the time have been imposed. The last new duties on exportation of grain were:

Wheat	Rixdollars	3	12 gr. per last.
Rye - - -	-	2	—
Barley - - -	-	1	12
Pease - - -	-	2	12
Oats - - -	-	—	20

Fir and Oak Timber and Staves

Next to the corn trade, that in fir and oak wood is of the greatest importance to Dantzic: we have already described from whence these supplies are brought.

Fir timber is principally brought down in its natural state, without being dressed or squared; it generally undergoes this operation at Dantzic, at the time it is purchased for shipping; or, in winter, when the people cannot be otherwise employed, they are occupied in preparing and squaring timber, either for exportation, or ready to make into planks.

Balks and heavy timber are hewn with the axe, and plained afterwards with the hatchet. Those trees which are to be sawn into deck-planks are first hewn on two sides till they are twelve inches thick, and then sawn into planks.

During the course of the year 1804, four saw-mills were building, for the purpose of sawing pine planks; one is already finished, and ere this, no doubt, the other three.

They chiefly manufacture here deck plank, which is reckoned better than from any other place: the proportions are,

Inches thick.	Feet long.	Inches thick.	Feet long.
3	40	$1\frac{1}{3}$	36
$2\frac{1}{2}$	40	$1\frac{1}{2}$	30
$2\frac{1}{4}$	36	1	30
2	36	1	36
2	30	1	30
$1\frac{1}{2}$	40	1	24

Fir balks and beams are sold by the running foot, according to their length, breadth, and thickness. But few masts are brought down, and those chiefly for their own shipping.

All oak timber, planks and staves, as well as ship timber, pass the brack (pine wood is only excepted); and sworn persons are appointed for that purpose.

Staves.

At this place there is a yard, conveniently situated, close to the city, where all oak plank and staves, brought from the interior, and intended to be shipped off, are bracked; this brack is under the regulation and control of the magistrates of the city, who appoint men, recommended by the merchants and sworn into the office, and who are responsible for any defect or improper assortment. Whatever denomination is purchased or agreed for, the quality is sure to be equal.

There are many different sorts of staves, but at Dantzic only five, which are properly destined for the use of England; these are of three different qualities—crown, brack, and brack's brack.

The gauge for crown pipe staves, which the bracker has always in his hand at the time of assorting, is $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches broad, $1\frac{3}{4}$ inch thick, and the length, 64 inches, which they must be at least; but they are always expected broader, thicker, and longer.

Pipe staves are from 64 to 68 inches long; 6, 5, and at least $4\frac{1}{2}$ broad; $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 thick.

Brandy staves, at least, 54 to 58 inches long; as thick and broad as pipe staves.

Hogshead, 42 to 45 inches long; as broad and thick as pipe staves.

N. B. All English measure.

The quality is ascertained by marks, to distinguish that of each.

Crown Pipe staves, stamped at the end	K
Brack, in the middle	I
Brack's brack	II
Hogshead Crown, at the end	OK
Brack, in the middle	I
Brack's brack	II
Brandy Hogshead Crown, at the end	BK
Brack, in the middle	X
Brack's brack	XX

The letters are struck with a hammer, and the other marks are drawn over by an instrument.

Oak Plank.

This is likewise under the control of the Brack, in the same manner as staves, but by different Brackers.

The Crown plank, in the middle, is marked	C
Brack, in the end and middle	B
Brack's brack, ditto	BB
To distinguish $1\frac{1}{2}$ from 2, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ from 3 inches, } the $1\frac{1}{2}$ is marked with }	I
And $2\frac{1}{2}$	⌘
At the end, in rough strokes, with coloured paint.	
Brack is	yellow I
Brack's brack	white II
Crown	red III

Every dealer has his own number, by which it can be told who is the owner, in referring to the number ; as, for instance, I. II. III. IV. V. VI. and so on.

It is to be observed that the oak timber trade only began 60 or 70 years ago, and that the lengths diminish every year.

The longer the oak timber, the better ; 4 to 5 inches thick, average 32 to 34 feet long ; 3 to 4, 28 to 30.

The crown oak plank is all bought up and selected for the British navy, and that which is the least defective by knots, and does not run full 12 inches in breadth from one end to the other, is put into the first brack.

Oak plank is assorted into the following thicknesses and lengths, and proportioned when sold accordingly.

Inches thick.	Fathom long.	Inches thick.	Fathom long.
4	8	3	4
4	7	$2\frac{1}{2}$	6
4	6	$2\frac{1}{2}$	5
4	5	$2\frac{1}{2}$	4
3	7	2	5
3	6	2	4
3	5	2	3

Quantities of oak knees and crooked timber are shipped off from Dantzic, for ship building, for the Danish and Swedish navies ; likewise oak squared, as well as plank : not much of the latter.

Ashes.

Formerly very large quantities of ashes were exported from Dantzic, and there were no less than thirty-one different fabrics, well known by each of their particular marks, and by which the quality was known.

Ashes have a bracker, and a commodious warehouse appropriated to this branch of trade. The calcined are opened, and the crust is taken off; others are not examined, unless any suspicion of the quality, or the staves of the hogshead are supposed too thick. Of pot ashes, every cask must be opened; they are made into three sorts, crown, brack, and brack's brack.

When a burgher, in Dantzic, deals with a Polander for pot-ash, or any other article, the quantity of which is determined by the scale, he is to allow him 10 per cent. tare, and 10 per cent. overweight, from each hundred; when on the other hand, the burgher on selling or exporting these articles, allows but 6 per cent. tare; from which the following balance remains in his favour:

He delivers when he sells	200 lb.
And allows only 6 per cent. makes	12
And gets paid	188 lb.
He receives when he buys	200 lb.
10 per cent. he is allowed tare, makes	20
Remains nett	180
10 per cent. overweight	18
He pays for only	162 lb.

Linens.

Very large quantities of coarse linen was formerly exported from Dantzic, called hempen and flaxen headens, all regularly assorted thus,

Best white hempen	Second best middling headen
Best brown hempen	Best broad black
Second best ditto	Broad low headen
Best broad headen	Low headen
Second best ditto	Crocus
Best middling ditto	Middling ditto

and some others, making no less than sixteen different descriptions.

The purchases of linen are made from the Polander according to Dantzic ells; the buyers are allowed 2 per cent. per 100 ells; the sales and exportation are made according to the same measure.

Eight Dantzic ells are equal to five yards English.

The ships belonging to this port in the year 1802, were 95, making 20,921 lasts; and on the first of January, 1804, 91 ships, making 20,104 English lasts of wheat, of which, fourteen were from 300 to 420 lasts each; but they have had even larger.

It is almost a matter of surprise that their shipping has not increased to a greater extent, considering the inducement the merchants have had, first, in carrying their own produce, even according to the British navigation act: as they have timber and all other necessary articles for building at a cheap rate within themselves, (canvas only excepted), reasonable labourage, and a low rate for provisions and wages.

It is certain that no better ships could be built any where than at Dantzic, as they have excellent materials. There are several merchants who build for their own trade, and it must be admitted that they have confidence not only in the vessels, but masters and crews, for some of them have not been known to insure, yet some of them do at particular seasons, and then only partially.

Such encouragement however they have had, that three or four large ships are annually built; they work all the winter, when many hands have not other employ, of course wages are reasonable; they can collect about 300 people for employment in various departments of this branch. The carpenters make the masts, yards, &c. in short, there it is not a separate business, or such a division of labour as in England.

A ship loaded with 200 lasts of wheat at Dantzic, measures 335 tons in London.

It has been estimated that a ship of 130 lasts of wheat, of the best construction, materials, and workmanship will cost building at Dantzic, and equipping all ready for sea, provisions excepted, about 13,000 Prussian dollars, or 2166 pounds sterling.

The following sketch was taken in 1804, from the documents of a ship built at Dantzic, being in

Length of keel	122 feet	} Dantzic measure.
Breadth	$33\frac{1}{2}$	
Depth in the hold	$13\frac{1}{2}$ feet	} English measure.
Between decks	6	

The cost for the materials, building, and rigging, as under,

Timber and planks	florins 50000
Other wood and for carpenter's work and labour	2000
Iron work and rudder	14000
Other necessities and iron work	5500
Carpenter's work for the ship	24000
For masts, &c. to ditto	3500
Ropemaker's work to ditto	30000
Sailmaker, two sets of sails to ditto	20000
Blockmaker, for blocks to ditto	2000
Sundries to ditto	6000

The cost in florins 157000

Original cost of the same in Prussian dollars 39222 $\frac{1}{2}$

In Dutch ducats 13074

or, in sterling money, about 6600*l*. This ship was estimated to carry 360 lasts of wheat, or 400 lasts of rye, of 10 $\frac{3}{4}$ Winchester quarters each.

The expenses per month come to on an average	950
For 100 lb. of bread for ditto	24
100 ditto meat	40
100 ditto cheese	30
100 ditto butter	100
a scheffel of grey pease	9
ditto white ditto	8
grits, per sheffel	13
hogshead ship's beer	16

Dantzic florins per month 1190

Four of which make a Prussian dollar dollars 292 $\frac{2}{3}$

Or, about sterling £.50

The wages are from 8 to 10 and 12 Prussian dollars per man, per month, according to their rank, which is not more than from 26 to 40*s*. per month.

The fluctuation of the trade at Dantzic, of latter years with former ones, will best be shewn by the number of vessels which have arrived and sailed. It must be observed, when the corn trade is lifeless, and not much stirring in timber, the trade at Dantzic is indeed dull.

	In the Year	1752 there entered	Ships. 1042	and departed	Ships. 986
		1765	1293		1286
		1777	652		673
		1779	537		520
		1781	546		489
		1782	447		449
		1783	681		694
		1784	839		831
		1785	827		835

The increase of the trade of Dantzic will be shewn by the additional number of ships which arrived and sailed.

	Arrived.	Sailed.
1793	810	783
1794	898	828
1795	494	537
1796	851	829
1797	765	751
1798	1079	1043
1799	1021	974
1800	966	949
1801	1217	1207
1802	1874	1916
1803	1888	1907
1804	1430	1424

The share which the shipping of each country or state has had in the trade of Dantzic was at the following periods.

	In 1770	1781	1790	1800
Dantzic ships	142	132	142	186
English	95	57	118	286
Swedes	277	115	23	92
Danes	139	85	91	89
French	2		1	
Hollanders	465			
Prussians				81
East Frieslanders		55	57	155
Pomeranians and sundry } others }	127	45	60	60
Total	1247	489	492	949

In 1794	there were	167	English ships.
1795		112	
1796		314	
1797		143	
1798		239	
1799		204	
1800		286	
1801		253	
1802		439	
1803		281	

It must be observed, that the export duties in Prussia are very reasonable, seldom exceeding 5 per cent. at any time, on any article; on grain at present as stated, and on some other goods very low. Import duties are heavy, besides great prohibitions to importation, particularly on all manufactured goods.

Money Transactions, Exchange, &c.

All business relative to the exchange is done in Dutch ducats, fixed at 12 florins Dantzic currency each; as likewise all bargains for corn, wood, linen, ashes, bees-wax, tallow, and other raw produce, are made in the same specie at that fixed rate; whilst unconnected with any such purchase it is current for 13 florins, 1 to 8 grosh of Dantzic currency.

Wines, drugs, and import articles, are generally sold in Dantzic currency.

GOLD.

There is a very great variety of coin at Dantzic; indeed no place has so much circulating specie, particularly in Dutch ducats. The Dantzic coin is greatly diminishing in circulation. The course betwixt it and the Prussian is constantly the same, 100 guilders Prussian are $133\frac{1}{3}$ florins Dantzic currency; a Prussian dollar is 3 guilders, which makes 4 florins of Dantzic. All produce drawn from the former Polish provinces, now belonging to the empire of Russia, and to Austria, are paid for in Dutch ducats; the latter, however, take likewise ducats of the emperor's coin, with one or two per cent. loss, or Vienna bank notes. The produce, however, drawn from that part of Poland, which is now called South Prussia, is mostly paid for in Prussian currency; as likewise those imports from the neighbouring provinces, which even accept of 3 grosh-pieces, and other small money.

1 dollar has 3 guilders, 90 groshen, or 270 schillings Prussian.

1 Prussian dollar makes 4 florins, 120 grosh, or 360 schillings Dantzic.

1 schilling has 6 pfennings.

Old specie dollars has 6 guilders, more or less. Timpffs, 18 groshen, sixers have 6 groshen, duitchens 4 groshen, pol-dracken at $1\frac{1}{2}$ groshen, and groshen pieces at 3 schillings, and a schilling at 6 pfennings.

Foreign coins that circulate here, are as follows :

	Florins.	Grosh.
A louis d'or	25	
A Frederick, d'or	20	24
A new Dutch ducat	13	4
An old full weight ducat	12	20
A ducat weighing half a louis d'or	11	9
A dutch cross, or Albert's dollar	5	24
A ditto ditto deficient in weight	5	3
An old ruble	4	25
A new ruble	4	12

1 marc, Hamburg currency, is equal to 47 groshen Dantzic.

1 florin Dantzic is equal to $10\frac{1}{4}$ schillings Hamburg currency.

1 florin Dantzic is equal to $9\frac{3}{8}$ d. English.

Books and accounts are kept in Dantzic currency in florins and groshen ; 30 of the latter make one of the former.

The immediate course of exchange is on London, Amsterdam, and Hamburg, and on no other places.

The course on London is from 22 to 25 florins Dantzic currency per pound sterling, at three months date.

Although the terms of drawing are commonly three months, yet a bill drawn at a shorter date will fetch 3 groshen more for each month.

On Amsterdam, in pound Flemish for banco : but lately the merchants drew for money on that place in currency ; the course is now between 360 and 390 grosh Dantzic currency per pound Flemish, at forty and seventy days date. The length of the date makes a difference of 1 grosh per pound Flemish.

On Hamburg is between 162 and 174 groshen per rix dollar Hamburg banco ; at three, six, and ten weeks date, according to which a difference is commonly made of half a grosh per rix dollar ; on the course of the bill, viz.

A bill drawn at ten weeks date fetches 170 grosh Dantzic currency per rix dollar. Ditto at six weeks $170\frac{1}{2}$ ditto. A ditto at three weeks 171 ditto.

WEIGHTS.

99 lb. Dantzic is equal to	95 lb. English.
76	67 Amsterdam.
39	34 Denmark.
81	83 Elbing.
109	107 France.
89	80 Hamburg.
37	39 Liebau.
78	83 Russia.

1 shippond contains 330lb. Berlin weight, or 3 centner.

1 centner contains 110lb. or 5 stone of 22lb. each.

1 lispound contains $16\frac{1}{2}$ lb.; 20 lispounds are equal to 1 ship-pound.

1lb. contains 32 loth, which is equal to half an ounce.

1 pound has 2 mark, 16 ounces, 32 loths, 48 schott, or 512 pennyweights.

1 mark has 8 ounces, 16 loth, 24 schott, or 256 pennyweights.

1 ounce has 2 loth, 1 loth 16 pennyweights.

MEASURE.

17 Dantzic feet make	16 English feet.
51 Dantzic ells make	32 yards English.
83	69 ells Amsterdam.
26	21 Flemish ells.
31	25 Russian arsheens.

1 last of grain contains 60 scheffels when purchased by the burghers, but when shipped off, only $56\frac{1}{2}$ scheffels Berlin measure, equal to betwixt 84 and 86 bushels Winchester.

Ever since the city of Dantzic belonged to the Prussian territories, Berlin weight and measure has been introduced into the same; and all public scales have Prussian weights; 100lb. of which make 105lb. English.

CHAPTER VI.

Of Stettin. A General Account of the Trade and Navigation by the River Oder. Canals joining the Oder and the Vistula, and the Oder and the Elbe. Of the Transit Trade to Austria. Ship Building.

THIS city is the capital of Prussian Pomerania, and is about 100 English miles from Berlin, situated upon a rising ground, upon the west side of the river Oder, about 46 English miles from its mouth, or Swinemunde, its port on the Baltic. It formerly held a conspicuous rank as one of the Hanse Towns; it is a neat healthful city, populous, and reckoned to be as strongly fortified as any in Europe. It has spacious and secure moorings for shipping opposite the town, a large commodious quay, along side of which goods are landed from any ships which can get over the bar at the mouth of the river. The warehouses are conveniently situated for carrying on extensive and general business.

Its inland trade extends to Austria, Poland, Silesia, and other parts of Germany; and its maritime trade to England, Holland, France, Spain, Denmark, and Norway; it has also a share of the trade in the Baltic, to Sweden, Russia, Mecklenburg, and many ports in Prussia.

Formerly Stettin had the staple trade of several articles, such as linseed, herrings, train oil, and iron; but at present, its staple-right is only extended to linseed, chiefly for Silesia and the linen manufacturing districts. The exportation by the Baltic, consists chiefly of oak timber for ship building, staves, fir timber for general purposes, glass, salt, pot-ashes, and lastly

fruit, as apples, &c. of the former, however, wood forms the most valuable branch, notwithstanding the wood administration, or the comptoir belonging to government, has the privilege of the sale of inland timber and staves, brought from Poland, which latter are chiefly exported from hence and Hamburg, on which a saving of 6 per cent. is made. Farther, Stettin deals extensively in yuft hides, and large quantities of hempseed oil and tallow, linseed, flax, and yarn, from Russia; and from France, wines to the annual amount of 21645 tons, according to accurate lists kept from 1787 to 1796. From the year 1787 to 1796, the annual export of fruit to Russia had increased to 3714 tons. Near the Oder, are the grand salt-magazines, in which the salt of Prussia is preserved.

In the year 1800, the ships belonging to Stettin were 161 in number, amounting to 13296 tons burden, valued at 854065 rix dollars, and manned with 1044 men, forming about one-third of the whole Pomeranian shipping. In the year 1777, there arrived here 1185; in 1782, 1147; in 1783, 1186; in 1789, 1008; in 1790, 1051; in 1793, 1121; there departed in 1777, 1242; in 1782, 1171; in 1783, 1209; in 1793, 1114, exclusive of a considerable number of smaller craft from Berlin and the interior.

So long as the French occupy all along the coast of the North Sea, and the North-west of Germany, and the Weser and Elbe remain blockaded, Stettin may be considered as the most convenient and secure port for carrying on trade with the interior and northern parts of Germany, by that fine river, the Oder, which runs through a great part of the north of that empire, supplying all the provinces through which it passes with their foreign wants, and carrying off the produce and manufactures of those countries to the principal northern ports, by means of its great navigable advantages, in being connected with the river Elbe, by three canals; viz.

The canal of Frederick William, which was dug betwixt the years 1763 and 1768. It is about fifteen English (or 3 German) miles long, 5 Rhenish roods wide, and has 10 sluices: above Frankfort, it joins the Oder to the Spree, and the latter near Brandenburg, unites with the Havel, and this river falls into the Elbe.

2. The canal of Plauen, executed betwixt the years 1743 and 1745, was made to join from Plauen, the Havel with the Elbe at Parey. This canal is $4\frac{1}{2}$ German (or about 20 English) miles long, 40 to 50 feet wide, it has only three sluices, and

shortens the navigation, from the Oder and the Havel into the Elbe, more than one-half.

3. The canal of Finow, which above Olderberg, was made at the same time, by means of the rivers Finow and Havel, to join the Oder with the Elbe, and has 13 sluices.

The communication of the Oder with the interior of the northern parts of Germany and Poland is of a greater extent than is at first imagined. Considerable quantities of grain and other articles might be brought from Great Poland, by means of the river Netze, which, by the Bromberg canal, connects the Vistula and Oder. The Poles never availed themselves of this advantage, but most likely the Prussians now will.

The river Oder has its source on the very borders of Moravia, not far from Frideck; in Silesia, it touches the towns of Oderberg, Ratibor, Oppeln, Brieg, Breslaw, and Gross; Glogau in the Neumark, Frankfort, Custrin, and Schwedt; and in Pomerania, Gatz, Greeffenhagen, and lastly, Stettin, where, one of its arms, called the Reglitz, forms the lake of Damm; but with its principal waters in three arms, the Devenow, Swine, and Peene, falls into the Baltic, receiving in its course below Crossen, the Bober, and Netze, and, near Custrin, the Warte; the Warte previously receiving the Netze.

When the described connection of the river Oder with the Elbe comes to be considered, it will be seen, that all the manufactures of Silesia, and the most valuable produce of the considerable district it runs through, is diverted from Stettin, by the capital and merchants of Hamburg, which city, by its convenient situation on the North Sea, and by the described inland navigations and communications, draws all those advantages which Stettin is entitled to possess; however, this will not most likely ever be the case, unless the Elbe and the north-west of Germany, becomes blocked up altogether, and Hamburg is deprived of her trade by the present channels; for the frost setting in earlier, and continuing longer at Stettin than at Hamburg, exclusive of this interruption to the navigation, the voyage round by the Sound and Cattegat, is to be considered, as well as the obstacles the Oder presents at its mouth, which, however, are removing.

Of the three branches of the Oder already mentioned, falling into the Baltic, the Swine forms the sea-port of Stettin, and is called Swinemunde, which is about 9 German, or about 46 English miles by water, from the city. The port itself is deep and safe, but a sand bank at its entrance, called the Platte, prevents all large ships from having access to it; the depth of

water on the sand-bank is various, being from $8\frac{1}{2}$ to 10 feet, so that they are obliged to load and unload a part, or the whole of the cargo (according to the draught of water of the ship) in the road. Besides the Platte, there is another sand-bank, at the distance of about two German miles from Swinemunde, and situated near where the Great haff falls into the Swine; this is called the Quaphahn, and the depth of water upon it is frequently like that of the Platte, but generally something less. For the convenience of loading and unloading large ships in the roads, and transporting goods to and from Stettin, there are at Swinemunde and Stettin, lighters of 20 to 35 lasts each, properly adapted for the purpose, under certain regulations of the magistracy of the city, who, in July, 1790, limited the number to 119, which were able to carry 2481 heavy, or 3471 Dutch lasts; a part of these have lately become useless, in consequence of the improvements now making to increase the depth of water over the banks, near Swinemunde; so that, at present, there are not more than about 80 lighters, carrying about 2000 lasts, which are established for the purpose; the freights of which are fixed by what is termed the lighter-regulations.

The distance from Stettin to Berlin by water, through the Finow canal (being the shortest way) is, on account of the meandering of the Oder, about 55 leagues; and if the wind and weather are favourable the passage is made, by the Frankfort barges, in 10 or 12 days: these vessels are long and flat bottomed, sail very fast, but do not carry more than about 12 lasts of 72 scheffel each, Berlin measure.

The land carriage, from Stettin to Berlin, is by way of Schwedt, Angermunde, Neustadt, Eberswalde, and Bernau, about 100 English miles, and the rate is generally from 20 grosh to 1 rix dollar per centner of 110lb. (or 114lb English.)

Stettin may properly be said to be the port of Berlin, the metropolis, on account of its being the most contiguous port to it; yet the most valuable and extensive branch of trade goes by way of the Elbe to Hamburg. Prussia might derive great benefit by encouraging the building of shipping, and the carrying trade, for which Stettin is so well adapted, first, by the improvement of the port at a very small expense, and, in the next place, on account of its producing a great quantity of building materials at a more reasonable rate than at most other ports of Prussia; but, for want of proper encouragement, they are languid: the vessels in general belonging to this port are inferior

to those of Dantzic, Konigsburg, or other ports of Prussia, in workmanship, but not in the materials.

They have a very good regulation here, by which the ship-owners are obliged, every year, to give in a list to the presiding senator of the company of ship-owners; of the number and burthen of shipping belonging to the city, or to the owners residing therein.

On account of the communication of the Oder with the Elbe, wood and bulky articles come chiefly down to Stettin; of course, their trade has been but limited; the state of the Elbe will, however, be the means of extending it. In order to display it the more fully, there are tables, one of the imports, and the other of the exports for a few years, by which some idea may be formed, of the variations that have arisen in the trade since the year 1797, relative to which one observation is necessary. In the custom-house accounts, Great Britain, Ireland, and Holland, are always put under one head; therefore, on reference to those general tables, there will be found, under each year, the quantity in a separate column, to all places, whilst the other contains particularly the quantity to Great Britain and Ireland, and to Holland.

It will be seen from these tables, that the trade between those countries and Stettin is not very considerable, though since the blockade of the Elbe it is on the increase. The articles of wood are not so much esteemed in the British markets, as from other Prussian ports; not, perhaps, on account of the quality, but neglect and method of preparing and bracking them with the same care and regulation as at other ports. A brack for goods in general, on the footing of Dantzic and Konigsburg, is not introduced here; nevertheless, wood, and particularly staves, and oak plank, make a kind of an exception, the former being sold by what is called the senate brack, and decided also by the same, in case of dispute, but it is not so strict as that of the cities described. Plank and ship timber bought by the admiralty of Denmark, (which for some years past has made considerable purchases here), are generally received by their sworn bracker, either in the timber ponds or here in the yards, according to their instructions. However, some good timber, and articles of wood in general, can be picked out by a judge attending to it himself, and now and then a few masts for the English navy, and larger merchant ships.

The most considerable trade at Stettin is with Denmark, Norway, Sweden and France; to the latter are sent staves, and from

thence wine received in return. All merchandise may pass through Stettin, into Saxony and Austria, on paying a very reasonable transit duty, according to fixed rates, the established customs are moderate, but the excise duties are variably here, as in all other Prussian ports, differing according to the privileges of the respective cities; the way of laying them on is also various and uncertain, that the particulars would make a volume.

In the month of September, 1804, a vessel was launched here, entirely built under the sole superintendence of the owner, who was likewise the master. He had bestowed particular pains, not only in making reasonable contracts for all the requisite materials, but attending minutely to their respective qualities; this vessel was built entirely after the English architecture and model. She had been but seven months building; the timber was seasoned, which was collected from all the dealers yards, at the contracted price on the quality being approved.

The ship being afloat, her water-line was	101 feet.
Breadth - - - - -	30
Hold under the beams - - - - -	11½
Betwixt decks - - - - -	5½

Calculated to contain 172 Stettin lasts, and that she would carry from 450 to 500 tons English.

The contract for the wood was 40 dollars per last.

Carpenters work, 13 dollars per last.

Iron work throughout, including anchors at 3 grosh per lb. and the rudder irons 3½ gr. per lb. altogether cost 2,400 rix-dollars.

The running and standing rigging, including the cables, made of the best Königsburg rein hemp, was contracted for, at 42 dollars per ship-pound.

The masts, yards, &c. were had at the places. With the carpenters work, and other materials ready for sea, the ship cost 22000 rix dollars, or about £3,600 sterling: but it must be observed, that no ship was ever built so well, or fitted out in so costly a manner from Stettin. They certainly do not build so well here, generally, as at Dantzic; nor are their ships in such estimation.

By these imperfect details, the ship-owners of England may make a comparison of the cost of shipping, and the expense of

navigating them from hence, which is as reasonable, if not more so than from Dantzic and Konigsburg.

Money and Exchange.

They keep their invoices, accounts, and books here, in rix dollars and gute grosh, reckoning 24 gute grosh to a rix dollar; 1 gute grosh has 12 pfennings, and this is called current money, which has been in circulation since the reduction in 1763, and in which all bills of exchange are paid, and which all the law proceedings and documents call the currency fixed in 1764. They have several coins current, of different denominations, not used for mercantile accounts; they consist of grosh, shillings, sixpences, dryers, and one penny pieces, which generally bear a discount of $1\frac{1}{2}$ and $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. compared with the grob current.

EXCHANGE.

Bills of exchange are here drawn and received in the above current money, and the course upon the respective places are as follows:

Amsterdam, at 2 months, giving so many rix dollars Prussian currency, for one hundred dollars banco. (143 rix dollars per cent. or par. 100 Dutch dollars banco).

Hamburg, at 2 months date, so many Prussian rix dollars currency for 100 dollars Hamburg banco. (150 for 100).

London, at 3 months date, so many rix dollars and gute grosh for the pound sterling, (average 6 dollars for the pound).

WEIGHTS.

The Stettin centner of 110lb. is equal to 114lb. English.

1 shiplb. has $2\frac{1}{2}$ centners, 20 lislb. or 280lb.

1 centner has 8 lislb. or 112lb.

30lb. in Hamburg, makes 31lb. in Stettin, (difference 3 per cent.)

MEASURES.

Corn. 1 last has 4 wispel, 8 drömt, or 96 scheffel.

1 wispel has 2 drömt, or 24 scheffel.

1 drömt has 12 scheffel.

1 scheffel 16 metzen.

1 Stettin last of wheat, or 96 scheffels, measures in London,
 $14\frac{3}{4}$ Winchester qrs.

_____ rye _____
 _____ barley _____
 _____ Oats _____
 _____ Pease _____

60 $\frac{1}{2}$ scheffel in Stettin, makes at Hamburg 1 last.

_____ Amsterdam

1 chaldron of coals, Newcastle measure, makes 34 $\frac{1}{2}$ Berg
 scheffels, and 1 Berg scheffel is equal to 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ Berlin scheffel.

88 Stettin ells make 100 Hamburg ells.

74 Hamburg feet make 75 Stettin feet.

626 Amsterdam feet make 627 Stettin feet.

In wood, 31 Rhenish feet make 32 English feet.

1 mile of 9 loads of fir balks are 450 cubic feet.

_____ oak planks and boards 400 ditto.

_____ oak staves, pipe 1200, equal to

_____ 1800 hhds.

_____ 2400 barrels.

_____ 3600 hhd. headings.

_____ 4800 barrel ditto.

Exports from Stettin to France and Italy from 1797 to 1804.

Names of Goods.		1798	1799	1800	1801	1802	1803
Wood, Deals	shoc.	9	26	17	8	17	18
Hhd. hoops		383	215	463	12	396	800
staves		272	393	386	27	276	235
Timber	rxdr.	656	1051	333	327	3796	581
Clapboard	shoc.	63	9	225			17
Planks	pes.		855	269	220	1023	
Shipwood		192		252	755	3617	
Pipe staves		1141	1004	1963	208	1114	1649
Tun hoops		206	118	99	41	143	158
staves		9005	2910	11017		7802	7466

CHAPTER VII.

PRUSSIAN POMERANIA.

The Trade and Navigation of Stolpe, Rugenwalde, Colberg, Treptow, Cammin, Uckermunde, Anclam, Demmin, Swinemunde; their Imports and Exports collectively.

OF Stettin, the capital of Prussian Pomerania, we have already treated. This district is not productive in grain: some years it is obliged to import from Dantzic, Elbing, and Konigsburg. It has some manufactures, principally of linen, but not much commerce; we shall therefore treat of all the ports under this general head, as they are all in Prussian Pomerania.

STOLPE is the capital of the circle of that name in further Pomerania; it lays on the river Stolpe, about ten miles from its harbour, called Stalpemunde, to which some ships belong. Small craft can only get up to the town. It exports a little fir and oak timber, and some staves, but they are of an inferior quality to those from Dantzic or Stettin. It is about 100 miles west from Dantzic.

RUGENWALDE lays about 80 miles west of Stolpe; its harbour is directly on the Baltic, and the town is situated on a small river, called the Wipper. It has a few small vessels belonging to it, and but little trade.

COLBERG has rather more trade than the other ports of Pomerania, being situated about the centre of it on the Baltic coast, where the country is more populous and better cultivated. It stands upon the river Persante, and on its discharge into the Baltic forms a tolerable harbour for its size. It has its

share of shipping and foreign trade. A good deal of linen is manufactured here.

TREPTOW is a small town, situated on the small river Tolensee; it has but little trade, but some shipping of a small size.

CAMMIN is situated near the Baltic, upon one of the branches of the haff, where it falls into that sea, has little or no trade, but some small shipping.

UCKERMUNDE is an inconsiderable town, situated at the mouth of a small river, called the Ucker, where it falls into the Great haff; it has but little trade, but carries on the building of smaller vessels. It lays at the S. W. extremity of the haff.

ANCLAM was one of the principal Hans Towns. Its appearance denotes its former wealth and importance. It is situated upon the Pene, which falls into the western branch of the communication betwixt the Great haff and the Baltic sea. The river Pene is navigable up as far as Demmin; and tolerable sized vessels can get up to the town of Anclam. It builds several smaller sized vessels annually. When the exportation of corn is allowed, the quantity shipped from hence, has not been inconsiderable, being a corn country around it, with the advantage of an interior communication, though to no greater distance than Demmin.

The principal articles manufactured in Anclam consist of cloth, stockings, hats, tanned leather, linens, soap, tobacco, &c. which (in 1803) produced upwards of 55,000 rix dollars.

DEMMIN, though an inland town, and the frontier betwixt Mecklenburg and Pomerania, has nevertheless some traffic, and therefore is stated in the list of imports and exports.

SWINEMUNDE on the island of Usedom, directly facing the Baltic sea, is, as we have already described, the port of Stettin, and the best passage to that city is by this channel betwixt the islands of Usedom and Wollin.

Of the value of the exports and imports to and from Stettin, Uckermunde, Penemunde, and in short from the whole of Prussian Pomerania, an idea may be formed from the following statement:

Imports.

1786	-	-	-	-	-	-	2957119 rix dollars.
1787	-	-	-	-	-	-	3386346
1788	-	-	-	-	-	-	3521531
1789	-	-	-	-	-	-	3983130

And the Exports as follow;

	1786	1787	1789	1799
Stettin, Ucker- munde, Pe- nemunde, and Neumark }	Rix dollars. 1605587	Rix dollars. 1703270	Rix dollars. 3983130	Rix dollars. 1906126
Anclam	14673	23906	62693	9850
Demmin	21985	30861	28971	9640
Swinemunde	3182	4888	10089	3400
Colberg	60812	64660	76591	65158
Rugenwalde	17054	10774	6015	11744
Treptow	9575	11253	2120	18063
Stolpe	13575	11666	5924	31304
	1756443	1861278	4229450	2055287

CHAPTER VIII.

Society for Trade and Navigation. Assurance Company. The Bank. The Deposit Office Bureau. The Discount Office and Lombard. Banking Business at Berlin. Bill and Money Exchange Course there. Trade betwixt Great Britain and Prussia, and Amount of the Imports and Exports betwixt the Two Countries, including Poland from 1700 to 1804. State of the Trade and Navigation of Great Britain with Prussia, in the Years 1800, 1801, and 1802.

THE true principles of commerce, as in all military governments, are little understood, and much less practised in Prussia; it appears not to have any united system in its dominions to make a combined connexion in its trade and manufactures; the latter, however, it encourages beyond the example of any other country; but there are no institutions of a public nature, founded upon general principles, to facilitate commerce; and each of its ports has its peculiar modes of doing business, independent of the others, or of any general regulations. Those which are here described are of a trifling and almost useless nature, if not prejudicial.

The Society for Trade and Navigation was established in the year 1792, and underwent various modifications in 1794, when its duration was prolonged to the year 1808; it is under the direction of five counsellors. The object of this society is to promote the indiscriminate exportation of the products of Prussia; for which purpose it has a fund of 1,500,000 rix dollars, in shares of 500 and 3000 each; the interest on which is guaranteed at five per cent. to the holders by the royal bank and the country. As the proprietors incur no risk, they consequently have no vote in the management or direction of the concern, yet all depends upon the discretion of the five direc-

tors. Among others, they have the exclusive privilege of importing salt from abroad, and trading with it to Poland. They have to pay annually into the invalid's chest 25,000 rix dollars and 20,000 more to the custom and excise departments; but, in return, they are exempt from paying any duties throughout the country, and from all stamps and fees in the courts of justice. In Königsburg and Memel, the merchants have the salt from this company on credit; they receive two per cent. commission for what they sell, and four per cent. discount for ready cash. Exclusive of this, the merchants in Königsburg have the privilege of securing to themselves 400 shares, and those of Memel 100.

The Assurance Company was re-modelled, March 1, 1792, and its duration fixed for a limited time. The transportation of goods on the sea and rivers form their principal object, for which they have a proper fund, in shares of 1000 rix dollars each; and these, in the year 1793, paid six per cent. interest.

THE BANK is under the management of one commercial director, one justiciary, and one commissary; it was founded after the seven years war, in order to facilitate the circulation of money in the country. Its credit is solid, but the institution resembles more a concern of the police, than a mercantile establishment, its influence on trade is far inferior to what it ought to be. Three bureaux are appointed for the expediting of business.

1. *The Chief Office* is occupied with the purchase of bullion, the buying and selling of foreign and inland bills, with the transport of the public revenue, it draws upon foreign and inland trading towns.

2. *The Deposit Office Bureau* receives sums of money from 50 rix dollars and upwards at two per cent. but charitable establishments and minors are allowed two and a half per cent. The capital may be withdrawn at a moment's notice.

3. *The Lombard Discount Office* advances small capitals at five per cent. and more considerable sums at four per cent. provided they are not to be speedily returned. On the other hand, the debtor gives a good bond, or other documents to be approved, as a security; also upon jewels, gold, silver, &c. &c. This bank is exempt from paying all postage of letters throughout the Prussian dominions.

Subordinate to this are the provincial or country banks at Breslau, Cleves, Elbing, Embden, Frankfort on the Oder, Königsburg, Magdeburg, Minden, and Stettin.

Though great efforts have been made to render the Prussian states flourishing in the line of manufactures, yet very little has been done to render them mercantile; for which, indeed, by their geographical situation, they are not well adapted. Add to this, that, as Prussia is rather a re-union of different people than a nation, there is not that similarity of manner in the way of thinking, nor that attachment to government that is necessary to a complete co-operation and confidence. The business is nearly all transacted in specie, and there is not, as in most other countries, a free national circulation of paper. The exchange with other countries is consequently carried on no farther than what is necessary for individual transactions.

Exchange.

Berlin being the central point betwixt the cities of Dantzic and Konigsburg, (which have a good deal of the Russian negotiations, as well as their own business), and Hamburg and Amsterdam the specie, business, mostly centres in Berlin. Those ports require vast quantities of specie, for the payment of the produce brought down, not only to the Prussian, but likewise to the Russian ports, which we have described. The whole of it may be said to pass through Berlin, from whence all the specie is sent up to the Baltic ports, by the bankers of that city likewise to buy bills, so that a doubly beneficial operation is performed in the traffic of specie as well as paper, on the side of the Baltic on one hand, Hamburg and Amsterdam on the other.

Berlin, too, has considerable banking business from Silesia, and other places of the kingdom; and, although the profit attached to this business is but small, yet it is more securely done at Berlin than perhaps many other places, because the bills pass, as it were, in transit, with drawers, endorsers, and remitters; whilst, from a shipping port, there is unquestionably a greater risk, because there is only the security of the drawer till the bills are accepted.

In order, however, to give some idea of the business at Berlin, the following table of blank courses in the exchanges are here introduced.

Bill and Money Exchange of Berlin.

Berlin, the course of exchange on	For currency.	
	for billsex.	for money
	Rix dollars. Prussian cur.	
Amsterdam, in bco. at sight 250 guild.		
4 to 5 w. date 250		
in currency sight 250		
4 to 5 w. date 250		
2 months date 250		
Breslau 100 rx.dr.		
Cleves and Westphalia 100		
Hamburg in bco. at sight 100		
4 or 5 weeks 100		
2 months date 100		
Konigsburg, in Prussia 100		
Leipzig, in convention money 100		
London, 3 months date 1 l. stlg.		
Magdeburg and Halberstadt 100 rx.dr.		
Paris, 2 months date 300 francs		
Stettin 100 rx.dr.		
Vienna, 2 months date 100		
Ducats(rimd) at $2\frac{1}{4}$ rix dr. each 100		
ordinary, weighty, do. 100		
Souverain d'or each		
Fredrick William & Louis d'or,		
at 5 rix dollars 100 rx.dr.		
Bank notes 100		

It must be observed that the duties on exportation from Prussia are moderate upon the whole, most articles not exceeding five per cent. The importation of most manufactured goods is prohibited: the duties on coffee, sugar, tobacco, and some other articles, (now become necessities) are very heavy. In some of the ports, a transit trade is allowed, exempt from excise, but at Dantzic it is not.

The Trade betwixt Great Britain and Prussia.

The balance is certainly against England in her trade with Prussia. The great encouragement given to manufactures in that kingdom, and the prohibition of those from other countries, always give a considerable balance in favour of Prussia, which takes from us little more than our colonial produce, whilst we take the produce of her soil, in grain, wood, and some of her manufactures, particularly linens, in which last we should follow her example not only in manufacturing but likewise exporting.

In the official accounts of Great Britain what is now termed Prussia was formerly called the East Country, then Poland; but, since 1793, all Prussian ports, as they now are, excepting Embden, are added under one head. To shew the trade of Great Britain with Prussia, in the value of the importation and exportation in sterling money the following is the amount :

GREAT BRITAIN.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.
1701	£.167382	£.146644
1705	96451	100281
1710	114999	29634
1715	94951	50814
1720	109551	98968
1725	209149	105029
1730	190540	136935
1735	205753	120344
1740	199623	135480
1745	230039	142909
1750	334316	157000
1755	267288	174579
1760	205464	190217
1765	128901	239717
1770	175552	80329
1773	104337	68571
1782	332738	130524
1785	483485	97783

ENGLAND.

Years.	Imported.	Exported.
1793	£.854485	£.174339
1794	542708	302059
1795	522237	359491
1796	1190457	592503
1797	657792	627331
1798	880739	480063
1799	960629	340030
1800	1581240	833797
1801	1297114	655439
1802	931025	1069067
1803	721598	1649777
1804		

SCOTLAND.

Imported.	Exported.
£.51900	£. 600
69601	546
27780	347
113929	3877
88929	4907
87615	6922
94483	2704
152705	8556
90035	5300
126577	2829
109627	266725
161861	163923



BOOK III.

CHAPTER I.

OF MECKLENBURG IN GENERAL.

Its Boundaries. Its Produce. Its former State. Its great Agricultural Improvement. Its present State. And great Exportation of Grain.

MECKLENBURG

IS a dutchy in the circle of Lower Saxony, laying betwixt the Baltic and the river Elbe; bounded on the north by that sea; the south, by that river and Brandenburg; the east, by Pomerania; and, on the west, by the bishoprick of Lubec, by Lauenburg, and Lüneburg.

It enjoys little interior navigation; its produce is almost exclusively grain of every kind; in which it now carries on a very considerable trade, both by way of the Baltic and the river Elbe.

Its other exports are of trifling moment; neat cattle, which it breeds; likewise horses; it also sends wool, butter, and fruit, to the eastern ports of the Baltic.

Its imports are all the necessities and luxuries of life, (having no manufactures within itself), which are chiefly drawn from Hamburg, to which market it lays contiguous.

The progress which agriculture has made in Mecklenburg is an example to other nations; it may now be called a second Flanders, although its soil is infinitely inferior, as well as its climate less favourable.

It is only two years ago that Wismar came into the possession of the Duke of Mecklenburg, from Sweden, by purchase; so that previously, the export of grain from Mecklenburg by way of the Baltic was chiefly through Rostoc. By the exportation from thence we may judge of the rapid prosperity of that province; an account of the exportation from Rostoc will serve as the criterion to judge by, because the trade of that city has arisen from the produce of these two dukedoms, brought by land carriage.

Mecklenburg was nearly in the state of a forest country, and its soil naturally rather poor, previous to the year 1760. In so insignificant a state was its agriculture then, that the exportation of grain was not, in the greatest years, more than 1000 lasts annually; but at this time, however, the ground was clearing, and some spirit of improvement manifested itself; between 1762 and 1768, the annual exportation had arisen to 1827½ lasts. The extraordinary great crops in 1769 and 1770 caused an exportation in the former year of 4090 lasts, and in the latter to 5310 lasts, or about 74340 quarters.

After these two years of plentiful crops, the dearth of grain in 1771 and 1772 may be said to have given rise to the great improvement of agriculture in Mecklenburg, from the high prices which were paid, and the great demand from other quarters of Europe; the exportation was from that period about 2000 lasts annually till 1775, when a more regular demand continuing from England; during the American war, the exportation from 1775 till 1780, had increased annually to 5000 lasts; from thence till 1785, to 6000 lasts; and in 1788, to 6700 lasts per annum; it increased annually till 1794, after which time and during the great scarcity in England and consequent demand from thence, the agriculture of Mecklenburg experienced a spirit of improvement and extent unequalled in any country, by the very high prices which they got for their grain; every landholder and farmer directed his attention to the production of grain, insomuch, that in 1796 the exportation was 11600 lasts of grain by way of Rostoc; and in 1800, 11100 lasts, and by one account, it is stated 12384 lasts.

It must be observed, that there was always some grain exported by way of the Elbe, but not of so much importance before the year 1793, when, in consequence of the continued de-

mand from England, from all quarters the Hamburg merchants took large quantities by way of Grabow, Domitz, Boitzenburg, and from the southern parts of Mecklenburg down the Elbe, which caused a saving of part of the freight and insurance incurred when shipped by the Baltic.

Since that period, pretty large quantities have always been transported likewise by the Elbe to the Hamburg merchants, who, in consequence of orders from England, and the contiguity of the dutchy, can immediately make large purchases; some quantity has been shipped from that city, as will be seen by a table under that head, great part of which was the produce of Mecklenburg.

The face of the whole dutchy is almost one corn field; the riches which have been brought into it within the last ten years, can only be conceived by the large sums of money which England has paid for grain. Holland as well as France have at times been considerable importers from thence; it is the first market open in the north, and Mecklenburg has, during the war, found them competitors with the English for purchasing their grain, in consequence of the security afforded by the Holstein canal to the Dutch and other vessels of such a construction, as can coast along over the flats, out of the reach of the shot of the British cruisers!

In short, so unfettered and unshackled has been the corn trade of Mecklenburg, that their nobility are rich and their farmers independent; the value landed property has obtained, is sufficiently proved by these events.

Mecklenburg, being a corn country, it has now every advantage for its export, Rostoc, Wismar, and Lubec, by way of the Baltic, also Demmin on the east by that sea; the river Elbe on the south; and even the canal by Mölln on the west to either Lubec or Hamburg; with these conveniences, it may be said to be the richest province of Germany. It may not unaptly be called the Egypt of the Baltic sea, being on its shores, what Egypt was on those of the Mediterranean. A short detail of its only two ports in the Baltic, Rostoc, and Wismar, follows.

CHAPTER II.

Of Rostoc. Its local Situation. Ships belonging to it. The Trade they are chiefly employed in. The Exportation in 1783 and 1784. Present Annual Exportation of Grain. Monies, Weights, and Measures. Wismar, its Localities, Shipping, and Exportation of Grain.

ROSTOC

WAS one of the principal ports in the Hanseatic League; it is now the chief one of Mecklenburg, and there is not a more beautiful little city in Germany; it is situated upon a gentle declivity on the river Warne, which takes its rise about 20 miles in the dutchy, and about 10 miles from the city, at Warnemunde it falls into the Baltic.

Vessels drawing more than eight or nine feet water cannot get up to the city, nor pass the mouth of the harbour at Warnemunde. The anchorage road is, however, reckoned excellent, no accident ever being known to have occurred. They have from 30 to 40 lighters, of from 10 to 30 lasts each, for the conveyance of grain to foreign ships laying in the roads, their own ships being adapted for the navigation, consist of about 200 vessels of from 80 to 200 tons each.

In the year 1788, their vessels had a share in a limited trade, and then made the following voyages:

Dantzic	2	Norway	51
England	11	Swedish Pomerania	18
France	1	Baltic sea	232
Portugal	4	Wismar	16
Hamburg	3	To other places	30
Holland	14		
Lubec	25		
Sweden	72		
			Ships 517

The exportation from hence is chiefly grain,—wheat, rye, barley, oats, malt, and white pease. Fruit, such as apples, pears, &c. to Russia; their wool to Sweden and Denmark; a few feathers, hides, a little oak timber, and a few staves to the above places in general.

They exported so early as the following years :

		1783.	1784.
Apples and pears	casks	11401	160701
Bottles	bottles	30729	20577
Vinegar	casks	2636	2382
Flax	cwt.	376	358
Glass	chests	899	807
Corn, wheat	lasts	2245	1136
rye	—	2240	996
pease	—	131	715
barley	—	532	368
malt	—	1178	1000
oats	—	268	280
Tobacco leaves	wt.	434	1903
Wool	stone	5399	11314

The wheat of Mecklenburg or what is shipped from Rostoc, is of a reddish yellow colour, but heavier, and obtains a higher price than the Dantzic and Elbing red wheat. Rostoc is advantageously situated for this trade, being ten miles inland from the coast, of course it receives considerable quantities by land carriage from the country around, even from Swedish and Prussian Pomerania, when any restriction is put to the exportation from thence. They have good granaries at Rostoc, where the merchants are continually buying it in small quantities, as the farmers and country people bring it, in winter, to the market, as well as during the year, according to the demand and price.

Their imports are East and West India goods, British salt, coals, manufactured goods, wine from France. The duties here are very trifling.

The annual number of vessels arriving and sailing, at Rostoc, are about 600; but in extraordinary years of demand for grain, something more. The annual exportation of all sorts of grain

may from hence be, as we have already stated, from 120 to 140000 quarters Winchester measure.

The accounts are kept here in new zwey drittel, or new two-third pieces and schillings; 32 of the latter make one of the former.

They draw upon London, Hamburg, and Amsterdam, the same as Hamburg courses in general, but send their drafts to be negotiated at Hamburg, from whence they receive the above described specie, which is coined in all the German states, excepting those of the emperor.

One hundred dollars Hamburg banco money are reckoned equal to 130 two-third pieces; sometimes, in case of great demand for such specie, to purchase grain, 133 have been given for 100 dollars, and sometimes only 120.

The two third pieces are only 32 schillings, whereas 48 schillings make a dollar.

Their weight here 5 per cent. heavier than the Hamburg weight.

Their last of wheat delivers in London, $13\frac{1}{2}$ quarters Winchester, but the last of oats will run near 15 quarters.

WISMAR,

Formerly a considerable city in the Hanseatic League, as we have already stated, belongs to Sweden, and but lately became an integral part of the dutchy.

There is not a better harbour in the Baltic than the outer one here, for vessels of any size, two to three miles from the town; those drawing eight or nine feet water can get close up to it. They have about 20 small lighters not exceeding 12 lasts each.

They have about 30 vessels belonging to the port, of from 30 to 70 lasts each.

The exportation from hence is in grain, the same as from Rostoc, chiefly shipped to England, Holland and Sweden, likewise to Portugal and Spain.

The vessels which arrived and sailed from hence, and the grain exported were, in the following years,

Year.	Ships arrived.	Departed.	Corn exported.
1794	132	210	3465 lasts.
1795	134	185	2564
1796	141	225	3923
1797	132	228	3605
1798	156	201	2591
1799	120	166	2359
1800	163	235	2716
1801	162	266	4188
1802	164	236	2221
1803	170	223	1269

Their money and accounts are the same as at Rostoc.

The weights differ, being the same as those of Hamburg.

The last of grain is 96 scheffels, which renders about $13\frac{1}{4}$ Winchester measure for wheat.

In other respects, the same nearly as Rostoc:

CHAPTER III.

Of Lubec. Its convenient Situation as an Entrepôt betwixt the Baltic and the Southern Parts of Europe. Its Localities. Shipping belonging to the Port ;—that which arrived and sailed for a Series of Years. Canal from thence to the Elbe, and the Merchandise conveyed upon it. The Road between Hamburg and Lubec. The Manner in which Imports and Exports are Sold. Monies, Weights, and Measures.

LUBEC is celebrated in history for having begun and being at the head of the Hanseatic League, which has already been fully treated of.

Lubec, like all the other free imperial cities, is very limited in its territory ; surrounded by Holstein, Hanover, and Mecklenburg. It produces nothing within itself, and therefore is entirely dependent upon foreign commerce. It is as an entrepôt betwixt the Baltic and the southern parts of Europe ; the produce of the former it receives to wait for the demand of the latter, before the navigation to the East sea can be open in the spring.

Its advantageous situation as the centre betwixt the Baltic and the south of Europe, likewise for the interior trade of the north west of Germany from and to the Baltic, in receiving and transporting the produce of each to the other, will make it always a place of great interest ; whilst it has the farther advantage of partaking of the trade by the Baltic on one side, that of the Elbe on the other, and it is only forty miles by land

from Hamburg: with the facility of the Holstein canal joining the Baltic and the North sea, it has the Stecknitz canal directly from its own harbour to the Elbe, at Lauenburg.

The rivulet Stecknitz falls into the Trave, above Lubec, where the Wacknitz drops into the Trave, on which river the city of Lubec stands; and, about 14 miles below thence it falls into the Baltic, at Travemunde, its roadstead, near which place formerly was a fortification for its protection. The anchorage is most excellent here for ships of any size: those drawing more than $9\frac{1}{2}$ and 10 feet water, must load and discharge here; to render this inconvenience easy, they have large secure lighters for this purpose. Vessels drawing about 9 feet water can proceed up to the harbour, within the city, into a spacious bason, which is very commodious. The ships can lay alongside the quay, nearly three-quarters of an English mile in length. Above the bridge, leading to the Holstein gate, the small craft and barges navigating the interior generally resort; the whole harbour going partly round the city, like a crescent, where there are sufficient and spacious warehouses for a still more extensive commerce, but which has considerably increased in consequence of the blockade of the rivers Elbe and Weser. The land carriage to and from hence to Hamburg is reasonable, being from 25*s.* to 35*s.* per ton, according to the nature of the article, the season of the year, and the demand for carriers.

They have a canal for heavy goods from Lubec to the Elbe, where it falls in at Lauenburg, passing through Möellon, being a distance from 35 to 40 English miles.

It is supposed there are about 100 boats employed constantly on this canal, and as many more may be procured, nearly of an equal size and the same construction, long and narrow, carrying about 90 shlb. of 280lb. each. These vessels are generally from ten to twelve days going from Lubec to Hamburg, having only three men to navigate them, without the assistance of horses. The freight is generally reckoned for the whole of one of these vessels, 100 marks current, from Lubec to Lauenburg on the Elbe, and generally from thence to Hamburg, one-third more; for which the boatmen are responsible against damage or robbery. This canal has the advantage of never suffering delay for want of water in summer, with which it is supplied from the fine lake of Ratzburg.

The delay in this short navigation is great, though it might be considerably lessened.

In consequence of the blockade of the Elbe and the Weser, the trade by the way of Lubec, to and from the interior of Germany, by means of this canal and the Elbe, and the roads, must have greatly increased.

The road, if it can be so called, betwixt Hamburg and Lubec, is perhaps one of the worst which is passable in Europe, although there are heavy tolls to keep it in repair, as well as tolls on merchandise. In the short distance of about 40 miles, it passes the territory of Lubec, alternately, through part of Hanover and Holstein, and then into that of Hamburg. Where there are contending interests and jealousies, it is not likely to be much improved, though all parties would unquestionably be considerably benefited by the improvement, for it would greatly increase the traffic: already it is almost inconceivable the number of waggons on this road, with not more than from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ tons, with no less than 8, 10, and 12 horses each; whilst, by an iron rail-way, upon the principle of those in England, one horse would, with great ease, do double the work in a level country, like that betwixt Lubec and Hamburg.

There is no transit duty existing at Lubec, though the forwarding business is one of the principal in it. The duties are fixed at a reasonable rate, but they pay a separate duty on entering the city, and likewise when shipped off.

It is even by this channel that considerable quantities of British produce and manufactures, likewise the produce of the British colonies, which pass through here to the various ports in the Baltic. Refined sugar is sent in considerable quantities to Russia and other places, principally from Hamburg, where it is manufactured.

In 1804, 110 ships belonged to this port, of different sizes, but built for navigating with ease from the sea into the bason in the city. These vessels are principally employed in the trade in the Baltic; many, however, to other parts of Europe.

It would almost be impossible, within any moderate compass, to give an account of the imports and exports of this place, or the goods passing through it: but, to give some idea of the trade of the city, the following account of the ships which arrived and sailed the following years will be sufficient.

	Arrived.	Sailed.
1792 . .	802 . .	783
1793 . .	848 . .	835
1794 . .	927 . .	918
1795 . .	1109 . .	1091
1796 . .	981 . .	1011
1797 . .	990 . .	985
1798 . .	1194 . .	1115
1799 . .	1035 . .	1007
1800 . .	990 . .	1010
1801 . .	1184 . .	1216
1802 . .	1188 . .	1209

*The Ships which arrived in Lubeck, from the 27th of August
till the 27th of September, 1803.*

From Amsterdam	1
Bayonne	1
Bordeaux	1
Bergen	2
Charlestown	2
Copenhagen	1
Liverpool	3
London	3
Marseilles	1
Naples	1
Newcastle	2
Oldenburg	1
Dantzic	1
Embsen	1
Flemsburg	1
Gothenburg	1
Hamburg	3
Petersburg	1
Philadelphia	1
Reval	3
Riga	2
Stettin	3
Stockholm	1
Teneriffe	1
Tönningen	1

It often happens that large quantities of goods are sent from the Baltic ports to Lubec, by the last ships in autumn, to wait the spring market, as has been before observed. It may therefore be useful to state in what manner they are sold at Lubec.

Flax, hemp, codille, tallow, iron, and hops, are sold by the ship-pound of 280 lb.

Linseed, tar, and whale oil, by the barrel.

Mats, by the 100 pieces.

Ravenducks and flems, by the piece.

Coffee, sugar, cocoa, cotton, indigo, pepper, ginger, pimento, wax, bristles, and tin, are sold by the pound weight.

Rice, logwood, vitriol, and starch, by the 100lb.

Money, Exchange, Weights, and Measures.

MONEY.

Accounts are kept here in marks and schillings current; 16 of the latter make one of the former, and 12 pfennings make one schilling. The agio varies from 20 to 24 per cent. betwixt banco and current.

They draw on Hamburg, at 3 days date, in banco money, receiving from one-eighth to one-fourth per cent. agio, which is a constant business this way.

There is no fixed agio for the sale or purchase of any merchandise as at Hamburg, from which city they differ in many of their customs.

One rix dollar has 3 marks, or 48 schillings Lubec.

Specie rix dollars, at 3 marks, 6 schillings currency, more or less; 1 and 2 mark pieces; 8, 4, 2, and 1 schilling pieces; also, 6 and 3 pfenning pieces.

Foreign coin that circulates here in gold is old French Louis-d'ors, or 5 dollar pieces; Prussian Frederick's-d'or; Saxonian August-d'or, &c. either at 13 marc currency, more or less, or at 5 dollars, with 16 per cent. discount, more or less, for currency.

Ducats of all kinds, valued either at 7 marks, 8 schillings, more or less, each, or reckoned at $8\frac{1}{4}$ marks light money, and are changed with a loss of 10 per cent. more or less, into currency. The new Danish courant ducats, of 12 mark Danish, go here at 6 mark Lubec currency.

All kinds of whole, half, and quarter specie dollars, either at 48, 24, or 12 schillings specie, are changed, with a profit of 24 per cent. more or less, into currency; or are given in payment, at 3 marks 12 schillings currency, more or less.

Albert's dollars are taken at 3 marks 8 schillings in currency, more or less.

All Danish current coins pay for half their nominal value at Lubec.

Lubec draws on other places in the same manner as Hamburg, at 2 months.

WEIGHTS.

1 shippound has $2\frac{1}{2}$ centner, 20 lispound, or 280 pounds.

1 centner has 8 lispound, or 112 pounds.

1 lispound has 16, and sometimes 14lbs.

A stone of flax contains 20 pounds.

A stone of wool or feathers, 10 pounds.

1 pound has 2 marks, 16 ounces, 32 loth. 128 drams, or 512 pennyweights.

1 mark has eight ounces, 16 loths, 64 drams, or 256 pennyweights.

1 ounce has 2 loth, 8 drams, 32 pennyweights.

1 loth has 4 drams, or 16 pennyweights.

1 dram has 4 pennyweights.

104lb. Lubec is equal to 112lb. English.

89	do.	87 — Amsterdam.
----	-----	-----------------

32	do.	31 — Bremen.
----	-----	--------------

82	do.	91 — Dantzic.
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401	do.	400 — Hamburg.
-----	-----	----------------

90	do.	101 — Revel.
----	-----	--------------

32	do.	37 — Riga.
----	-----	------------

11	do.	13 — Russia.
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MEASURES.

3 English yards are 4 Brabant yards, and 5 Brabant yards are equal to 6 Lubec ells, or

65	Lubec ells are	41	yards English.
19	do.	16	ells Brabant.
85	do.	71	ells Amsterdam.
37	do.	30	Flemish ells do.
191	do.	192	ells Dantzic.
141	do.	142	ells Hamburg.
58	do.	47	Russian arsheens.

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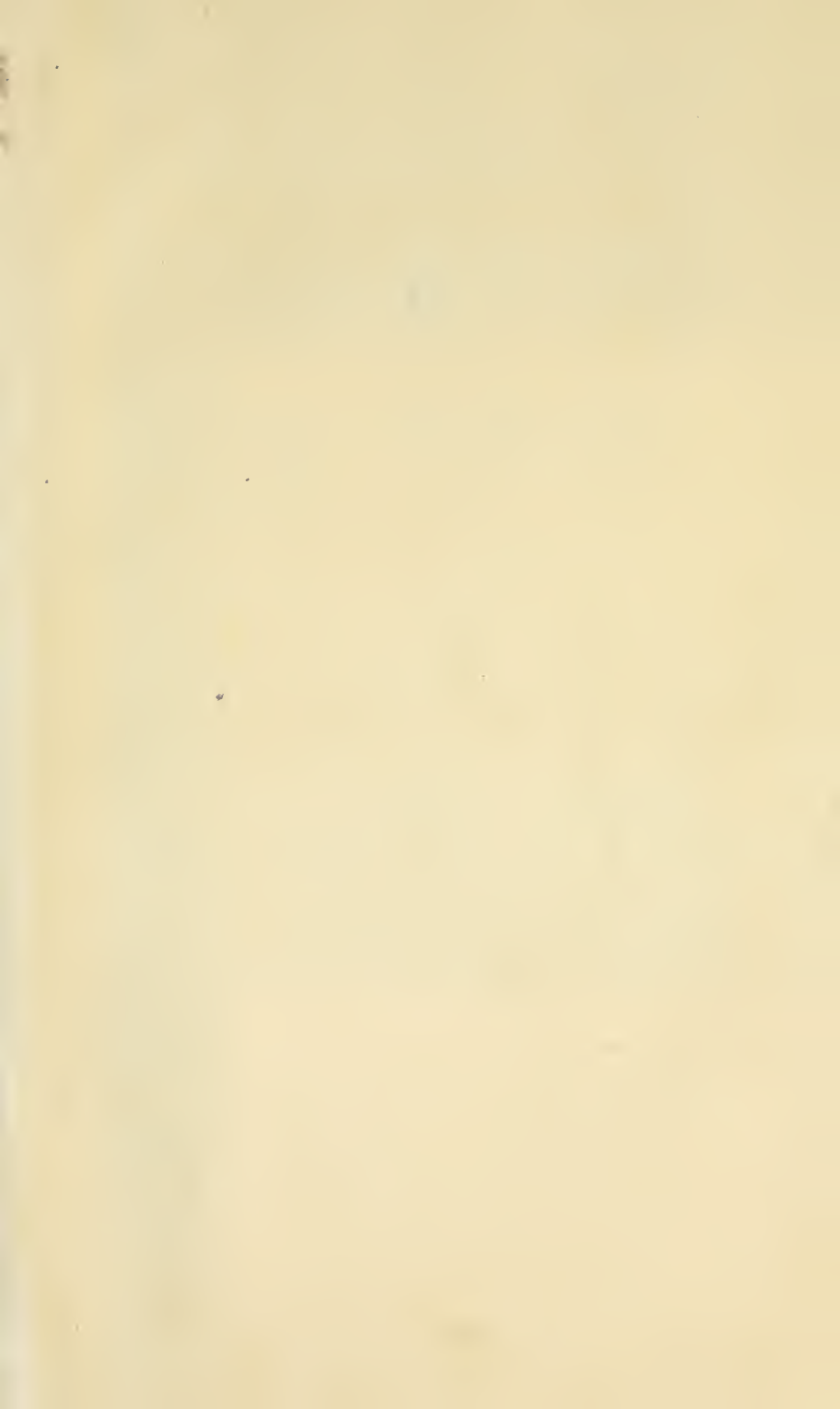
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